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ABSTRACT

This collection of papers examines mentoring in a variety of settings. The 17 papers are: (1) "The Organizational and Human Dimensions of Successful Mentoring Across Diverse Settings" (Frances K. Kochan); (2) "Parents Mentoring Parents for School Success" (Nathan T. Avani); (3) "Project Nia (Purpose): A University/School Partnership to Enhance Student Achievement and Success" (Ivan Eugene Watts, Nirmala Erevelles, and Kimberly Lenease King); (4) "From Impersonal Policy to Personal Relationships: An Educational Researcher's Experience with Mentoring" (Gregory J. Fritzberg and Aragaw Alemayehu); (5) "Student Perceptions of the Mentoring Relationship in Higher Education" (Sandra M. Harris); (6) "Programmatic Elements That Enhance the Mentoring Relationship" (Toni A. Campbell and David E. Campbell); (7) "Mentoring Aspiring School Leaders in Scholarly Writing through Case Studies of Diversity" (Carol A. Mullen); (8) "Joint Reflections on Mentoring: Creating a Legacy of Care" (Cynthia Reed, Audrey L. Phillips, Tasha Parrish, and Lucinda Shaw); (9) "Transforming Learning Through Mentoring in Early Childhood Education: The DART Model" (Arlene Martin); (10) "The Missouri Teachers' Academy: Mentoring for Organizational and Personal Transformation" (Kathleen Sullivan-Brown); (11) "Mentoring Leaders: Some Reflections on the Experience" (Luana Zellner and David Erlandson); (12) "Tracing the Development of Mentoring Relationships of Teachers: Four Case Studies" (Susan M. Tauer); (13) "Mentoring and Teacher Induction: Hearing the Voices of Change" (Arlene Martin); (14) "Mentoring Women in Educational Leadership" (Ernestine Enomoto, Mary E. Gardiner, and Margaret Grogan); (15) "Using Mentoring to Advance Females and Minorities in a Corporate Environment" (Norma T. Mertz and Shari Lawrence Pfleeger); (16) "Matching Mentors and Proteges: Dynamics of Race, Ethnicity, Gender, and Job Location" (Katherine Knight Wilcox); and (17) "Examining the Organizational and Human Dimensions of Mentoring: A Textual Data Analysis" (Frances K. Kochan). (Papers contain references.) (SM)

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The Organizational and Human Dimensions of Successful Mentoring Programs and Relationships

Frances K. Kochan

A VOLUME IN:
PERSPECTIVES IN MENTORING

SP 041 121

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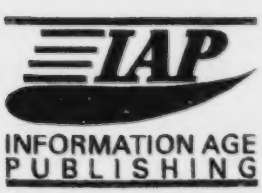
A Volume in Perspectives in Mentoring

The Organizational and Human Dimensions of Successful Mentoring Programs and Relationships

The Organizational and Human Dimensions of Successful Mentoring Programs and Relationships

Edited by
Frances K. Kochan
Auburn University



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Audrey Phillips is Academic Counselor and CHAMPS (NCAA student development) Life Skills Coordinator in the Auburn University Athletic Department. She developed a student athlete life skills resource manual, the *First Year Focus* program and has served as Facilitator for the NCAA Foundation Leadership Conference. Currently she teaches an academic success strategies course and co-advises the College of Education Student Council. Her experience and interests include college student development and freshman programming, and student leadership training and development. Audrey is currently pursuing an Ed. D. in administration in higher education from Auburn University, Alabama.

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CHAPTER I

THE ORGANIZATIONAL AND HUMAN DIMENSIONS OF SUCCESSFUL MENTORING ACROSS DIVERSE SETTINGS

Frances K. Kochan

In this, the first edition in the *Perspectives on Mentoring Series*, the face of mentoring is presented in a variety of settings in an attempt to capture its essence and its organizational and human dimensions. Literature in a variety of fields including education, business, and the health professions extols the advantages of mentoring, particularly for novices and for those seeking advancement. Among the most commonly noted benefits are personal, affective, social, and professional development (Clutterbuck, & Megginson, 1999; Freedman, 1993), academic success (Evans, 1992), professional advancement (Mullen, 1997), and guidance in avoiding making political, social, or professional errors (Funk & Kochan, 1999).

My own entry into the world of mentoring came late in my career when a young teacher who was pursuing her doctoral degree asked me to serve as her mentor. I was then the Superintendent/Director of a K–12 school system that operated as a laboratory school for a major research university. At that point in time I had been an educational professional for over 20 years. I had mentored others in an informal manner, but I had never been engaged in any formal mentoring relationships as a mentor or mentee. As I worked with this mentee, I began to discover the value of mentoring, not only for my mentee but for me (Kochan & Trimble, 2000). Responding to my mentee's questions made me delve into my own practice, causing me to examine my values, my motives, my feelings, and my actions. This examination made me aware of my own need to be mentored.

As Head of the K–12 University School System, I was part of an administrative team that ran the school and the school system on a daily basis. As a university employee and administrator, I served as a Department Chair and was part of the Dean's Administrative Team. Although I had been a Research Associate in higher education for a few years, and had served as a principal in the university school system for 5 years before becoming superintendent, most of my previous work had been in K–12 public school settings. I was confident in my ability to work with teachers, school boards, principals, and superintendents. I had always had a comfortable working relationship with my K–12 colleagues and believed I understood both the climate and the context of that environment.

Although most university faculty members appeared to accept me as a Department Chair and colleague, I began to realize that the traditional concept of university faculty being superior to their K–12 field-based counterparts (Funk & Kochan, 1999) was a part of my psyche, making me sometimes feel ill at ease. In addition, as the first female Head of the school, I was forging new ground and this sometimes added to my sense of uncertainty and discomfort about the context in which I was functioning.

Reflecting on these feelings and the various situations I found myself in led me to conclude that I would benefit form having a mentor. I contacted a woman I admired in the upper echelon of higher education who had been the first female vice-president in the state university system and asked her to be my mentor. She readily agreed. This relationship proved to be a powerful influence on me, helping me to understand the culture of higher education and building my confidence (Funk & Kochan, 1999). When I left the university school to assume a faculty position in educational leadership at Auburn University, I immediately asked a senior faculty member to serve as my mentor. That formal relationship lasted for two years, until she retired and moved away. However, I still depend on her advice and continue to communicate with her via email and phone.

When I assumed my present role as Interim Dean, I entered into a mentoring relationship with a female and a male dean, both of whom are very successful administrators. As a university professor and administrator, I have also entered into formal mentoring relationships with a number of junior faculty members, helping to support and guide them in their higher education journey. Thus, mentoring has become an integral part of my personal and professional life. My experiences with mentoring led me to conduct research on the topic and ultimately to develop this series on mentoring.

A close examination of the literature indicates that there are numerous definitions of mentoring and varied approaches to creating mentoring relationships. For example, mentors have been described as coaches, guides, advisors, sponsors, and tutors. The functions and roles of mentors have also been described in multiple ways (Jacobi, 1991). Likewise, those being mentored have been described using varied terms such as mentee,

protégé, and novice. The purposes of mentoring can be personal, professional, individually created, organizationally developed, self-determined and directed, or mandated and structured by someone other than the mentee. Thus, mentoring, which at first may seem to be a fairly straightforward concept is, in fact, complex and somewhat confused. This confusion often leaves those interested in the topic perplexed about how to proceed in establishing mentoring programs or relationships and not quite clear about what should be incorporated into them and what should be avoided.

In this book, I have attempted to address this complexity by presenting varied descriptions of mentoring programs and relationships that include diverse populations across many organizational settings. Each chapter includes a description of the mentoring experience, program, or activity, identifies the major attributes, and presents the lessons learned. Many chapters feature narrative aspects in an effort to reflect the voices of those involved and to bring the experience of mentoring to life so that the book is not merely a descriptive report of programs and activities, but rather, a living dynamic. Thus, I have followed Gehrke's (1988) suggestion that examining mentoring involves acknowledging the human connections that constitute the relationships and the experience.

The book includes four topical sections which begin with a brief description of the chapters within them. Each section includes at least one chapter that describes a research study or program that examines mentoring across numerous locations or settings. These descriptions are followed by one or two chapters that deal with mentoring in a single location such as a school or classroom. Each section concludes with a chapter focused on the personal perspectives of those engaged in mentoring relationships.

The book concludes with a chapter in which I present the results of my analysis of the human and organizational dimensions of mentoring discovered across the programs and experiences described in the book chapters. I also present ideas for further study related to developing and sustaining mentoring programs and relationships.

I trust that this book will enhance our knowledge of what it means to mentor and be mentored and that it will foster a deeper understanding of how to make such experiences more meaningful and worthwhile. In addition, I hope it will help to create an avenue for further dialogue about the mentoring topic among those who implement mentoring programs and those who view mentoring as a vital part of their personal and professional growth and the development of others.

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SECTION I

MENTORING FOR SCHOOL-AGE CHILDREN

Frances K. Kochan

This section focuses on mentoring with and for school-age children to foster their personal and school success. Each of the mentoring endeavors occurs in a different setting, but all have the present needs and future possibilities of the children being served as central features of the work being conducted. While detailing the technical programmatic aspects of mentoring, these chapters also capture the heart and soul of the mentoring programs and relationships that have been created.

PARENTS MENTORING PARENTS FOR STUDENT SUCCESS

This section begins with Nathan Avani transporting us into the inner city of New York where some of our nation's poorest families engage in a daily struggle to survive. The comprehensive mentoring program described matches parents of middle and high school students whose children have succeeded in school with parents whose children are struggling. The program operates across many communities and schools. Dr Avani's openness in sharing the problems faced and the lessons learned helps us to understand the complexities of this work as well as the importance of recognizing those who are willing to give of themselves to help others and to the necessity of celebrating the results of their efforts.

PROJECT NIA (PURPOSE): A UNIVERSITY/SCHOOL PARTNERSHIP TO ENHANCE STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT AND SUCCESS

Ivan Watts, Nirmala Ervelles, and Kimberly King move our journey in a different direction as they describe a mentoring program occurring in an extremely poor Southern rural community. The program involves a school/university partnership that connects university faculty with at-risk minority youth in a neighboring school. The school population is 99 percent African-American. Most of the students in this school live below the national poverty level. The program is focused on motivating students for academic success and expanding students' visions of their potential and their futures. The program involves faculty in three departments within the university: education, engineering, and architectural design. The impact of the experiences upon students and those who mentored them reminds us of the power of relationships across socio-economic and institutional realms and of the need for universities to reach out to the schools and communities they serve and to the people in them.

FROM IMPERSONAL POLICY TO PERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS: AN EDUCATIONAL RESEARCHER'S EXPERIENCE WITH MENTORING

Gregory Fritzberg and Aragaw Alemayehu conclude this section with their moving description of developmental relationship between a professor and his student, bringing the emotional aspects of mentoring to the forefront. The chapter begins with the author's narrative of his transformation from dealing with policies related to the standards movement and the lack of achievement of students who do not fit the White middle class mode to the unfolding of a personal mentoring relationship with a non-English speaking student of color. As he takes this student into his home and heart, we view mentoring as a transformative experience for both the mentor and the mentee, and perhaps for the reader.

CHAPTER 2

PARENTS MENTORING PARENTS FOR SCHOOL SUCCESS

Nathan T. Avani

THE BRONX EDUCATIONAL ALLIANCE

The Bronx Educational Alliance (BEA) was established in 1991 with Urban Partnership Program Funds from the Ford Foundation. It is housed at Lehman College in the Bronx, New York City. The Alliance is a coalition of 21 educational, health, human services, business, and governmental organizations. Lehman College, part of the City University of New York, is the only public senior college in the Bronx and serves the borough and Westchester County. As an urban four year college serving a predominantly economically disadvantaged, minority population, Lehman's mission is to provide students with an education that will enable them to pursue professional careers, especially those that serve the needs of the community such as teaching and nursing. Supporting the mission of Lehman, the BEA aims to increase minority access to college and careers through systematic change that will strengthen the quality, continuity, and articulation of Pre-K–16 education in the Bronx.

One project being implemented through the BEA, funded through the United States Department of Education, is the Gaining Early Awareness and Readiness for Undergraduate Program (*http://lehman.cuny.edu/bronxed*). The five year multi-million dollar GEAR UP program includes six school district cohorts totaling approximately 2000 children beginning in

the sixth grade, four higher education institutions (Lehman College, Bronx Community College, Fordham University, and Hostos Community College) and numerous community-based organizations, with Cablevision as a corporate partner. As Mentor Coordinator of the BEA GEAR UP program, I serve as a consultant for the project and am responsible for both the parent and student mentoring programs.

GEAR UP serves one of America's poorest cities, where students frequently do not go from kindergarten through grade 12 in neighborhood schools (a progression frequently taken for granted in some other parts of the country). In addition, New York recently adopted new and higher Regents' requirements and State Learning Standards for high school students. Without intervention, these Standards are likely to have a detrimental impact on high school graduation rates in the Bronx. Thus, one of the major goals of the GEAR UP program is to focus on developing "Educational Corridors" that create a passageway for students from kindergarten through graduation from high school. A major part of this effort involves aligning the curriculum in compliance with the Regents' requirements and new State Learning Standards. It is hoped that these strategies will open the door to higher education for students who might otherwise be denied this opportunity.

GEAR UP's Educational Corridors seeks to smooth the educational passageway for students from the sixth grade to college by:

- building a sense of community that is often found in other parts of the country but that is sometimes absent within New York City, among schools, students, and their families;
- connecting middle schools to their neighborhood zoned high schools, and high schools to nearby two-year and/or four year colleges; and
- strengthening relationships among administrators and staff across educational levels.

These connections involve numerous types of activities. Some, such as tutoring of high school students by college students and middle schools students by high school students, establishing a student mentor program from sixth grade through entrance into college, offering after-school academic support and enrichment activities for students are focused on fostering academic success. Other activities seek to improve schooling by developing and aligning curriculum, providing teachers professional development experiences, and establishing or linking schools to virtual learning sites.

Another type of activity, and the one dealt with in this chapter, seeks to involve parents in their childrens' schooling through creating site visits and educational opportunities for them across the schools, providing computer access in the home for each participating family, and establishing a parent to parent mentoring program.

THE SETTING

The GEAR UP Program was implemented in the Bronx. More than 80 percent of the students at each of the middle schools from which the participants were drawn are eligible for free lunches, although at the high schools the percentage is slightly less (about 70 percent). Table 1 displays a profile of the Bronx, presenting information on the educational and income levels of the families whose children attend the local schools.

The Bronx is one of the poorest boroughs in New York City. Compared to other towns in New York State, the Bronx has the lowest high school completion rates and the lowest rates of undergraduate college degrees. It has the highest levels of poverty, single parent families, families on public assistance, and one of the highest concentrations of families in which a language other than English is spoken at home. These statistics are significant because high-achieving students from low-income families are five times less likely to attend college than high-achieving students from high income families (U.S. Department of Education, 2000).

TABLE 1
Profile of the Bronx

Characteristics	*Percentage for the Bronx*
Families below federal poverty level	48.0%
Adults not completing high school	41.5%
Individuals completing Baccalaureate degrees	12.2%
Single parent families	62.7%
Individuals on public assistance	30.0%
Families in which a language other than English is spoken at home	50.0%

What Do We Know About Mentoring

The GEAR UP Parent Mentor Program is primarily about parents mentoring parents. A review of the literature provides little documentation about parent-to-parent mentor programs and there is almost nothing written dealing with the topic related to parents of children in middle or high school. Although we found little about parent mentoring, I would like to provide a snapshot of what the literature tells us about mentoring in general. Research suggests that people in many types of organizations think mentoring positively affects career advancement (Serlen, 1989; Wright &

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Wright, 1987), and that mentoring is an active process, fostering relationships that may continue even after the formal program has ended (Kram, 1983; Noe, 1988).) The literature provides us with many examples of adolescents who have benefited from the experience of having a mentor. A 1995 Big Brother/Big Sisters of America Impact Study (Tierney & Grossman, 1995) showed that youth with mentors performed better than those without them. Fifty-three percent of the mentees in this study were less likely to skip school than students not mentored. Additionally, 46 percent were less likely to begin to use illegal drugs, 37 percent were less likely to skip a class, 33 percent were less likely to hit someone, and 27 percent were less likely to begin to use alcohol.

Mentoring has become very popular in recent years and is beginning to be used in many career areas and over a wide range of age levels. Mentoring programs have increased substantially in scope and frequency. A two-year study by Public and Private Ventures (Tierney & Grossman, 1995) found that nearly 40 percent of the more than 700 programs surveyed had been operating for less than five years. These programs varied from traditional one-on-one mentoring to group mentoring.

The question of age in the mentor/mentee pairing process often becomes an issue to consider. Addressing this issue, a 1996 study by the Temple University Center for Intergenerational Learning found intergenerational mentoring with middle school youth to be very effective. These youth had better school attendance, improved their relationships with adults and peers, demonstrated less negative disruptive classroom behavior, and exhibited positive changes in knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors related to substance abuse and life skills such as decision-making, problem solving, and goal setting.

No references to programs in which parents mentor parents were found in the literature. Parents continue to play a major role in the mentoring of youth. Thus, we believe that if a child is to succeed in grades 6 through 12 and graduate with both the skills required for college entrance and the desire to go on to college, parents must play a major role. The school, support staff, teachers, parents, and students cannot make this happen independent of one another. Thus, parent-to-parent mentoring became a major focus of the BEA GEAR UP program. We believe that it may be one of the first programs of its kind. The project seeks to answer the following research questions:

1. Can parents mentoring parents prove to be a powerful and positive experience?
2. Can parents who have already had a child succeed in school at both the middle and high school levels help parents whose children are currently struggling in school?

3. Are there certain positive parenting characteristics during a child's middle school years and if so, can they be transmitted from parent to parent?

The Planned GEAR UP Parent Mentor Model

A proposed parent mentoring model was presented at a BEA GEAR UP principals' meeting in the Winter of 1999. Principals at this meeting represented all the middle and high schools that would be involved in the project. Input from this group, the BEA GEAR UP Steering Committee, and the BEA GEAR UP staff was used to revise and finalize the proposed model. For example, in the model initially presented, all the parent mentors were going to be volunteers with a child currently in the sixth grade. The principals at this meeting expressed the need to include high schools in the parent mentor program. As a result of this discussion, it was decided that consideration would also be given to including parents who had children in the ninth grade.

We expected to have approximately 2000 sixth grade students involved in GEAR UP projects each year. They were to come from six districts representing seven education corridors (One of the districts involved has two middle schools). Each of these corridors already had a GEAR UP Cohort Coordinator who is a full time staff member responsible for all GEAR UP activities at that site. These Cohort Coordinators are frontline staff and perform a critical role in the overall success of the GEAR UP project overall, and for each of the support components of the project at their school. The Parent Mentoring project was designed so that each Cohort Coordinator would report to the school principals within their Corridor and to the associate BEA GEAR UP project director. The Coordinator was also to be a member of the steering committee for the project and a member of the Corridor team.

The Cohort Coordinator was to be responsible for establishing and building a cohort community and for overseeing day-to-day cohort activities. Once the parent group was assembled, the GEAR UP Mentor Coordinator was to take over the leadership and assume the responsibility for developing, implementing, monitoring, and evaluating the parent mentoring program.

Initially, 10 volunteer parents from each education corridor were to be recruited to participate in the parent mentor program. Various combinations of sixth grade and ninth grade parents were envisioned (i.e. 6 sixth grade parents and 4 ninth grade parents). The inclusion of parents from students currently in the ninth grade was encouraged from those education corridors that had a high school next door or within walking distance of the middle school. In all other cases, it was assumed that the parents

involved in the parent mentor program would be parents with children in the sixth grade. Each of the seven middle schools involved in the GEAR UP project were invited to participate in the parent mentor program. We expected to have 70 parents involved in leadership teams. These teams were to meet with the GEAR UP Mentor Coordinator for training during the Spring 2000 semester. The training was to consist of four sessions of 2½ hours each. The four training sessions were to be focused on the goals of the parent mentoring experience and on parent/mentee recruitment. Parents were also going to be given an opportunity to further develop and refine the parent mentor model.

Materials for parent training sessions and project use were developed by the BEA GEAR UP Mentor Coordinator. Among these were: parent mentor/parent mentee logs, books, journals, and training materials. These materials were reproduced or purchased by the BEA GEAR UP office. The BEA GEAR UP office was to provide any technical services needed. Parents who attended all four training sessions and made a one year commitment to serve as a parent mentor were to be given an opportunity to choose to receive either a check for $150.00 or to participate in a course offered through the Division of Continuing Education at Lehman College, free of charge.

The Spring 2000 training was scheduled to take place once a month at Lehman College. Each of the four training sessions was going to be offered at three different times: Thursday afternoon, Thursday evening, and Saturday morning. Parents did not have to attend class on any particular day since the sequence and activities for each of the four sessions remained constant. Thus, a parent could attend the Saturday session for their first meeting and the Thursday evening session for their second meeting and so on. Some of the topics covered in these sessions were:

- parent issues regarding both the academic and social life of a sixth grader
- awareness of various resources available for parents
- parent mentoring/record keeping journals/logs
- conflict resolution
- increasing cultural awareness
- building a positive self-concept
- developing values for life
- teaching self-respect
- dealing with academic anxiety
- communication skills
- stress/depression
- parent mentee recruitment
- parent "pairing" or matching
- e-mail, web board postings, and varied uses of technology.

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In addition to the 10 hours of training described above, a four-day, four hour parent mentor/mentee activities training component was planned for Summer 2000. The date and time for the summer training sessions were to be determined by the BEA GEAR UP Mentor Coordinator and the parent mentor leadership groups. It was anticipated that both the volunteer parent mentors and parent mentees would participate in the summer program, which would focus on planning specific activities for the parent mentor/mentee pairs. The BEA GEAR UP Mentor Coordinator intended to involve the parent mentors in the decision-making process regarding both the Spring/Summer 2000 training content and parent mentor/mentee activities as much as possible. In addition to the topics covered in the Spring training sessions, the summer sessions would include such topics as continued recruitment of parents both as mentors and mentees, parent mentor/mentee pairing, and how to establish a mentoring relationship, build trust, connect with each other, develop an ongoing partnership, and establish effective communication channels. It was anticipated that by the end of August 2000, the parent mentor/mentee pairs would have been established for 70 parent-to-parent mentor pairs involving 140 parents.

Following the training, it was expected that the parent mentor/mentee pairs would begin meeting once a month with the BEA GEAR UP Mentor Coordinator starting in September 2000. In addition to these monthly meetings, each parent pair was expected to meet weekly. All parents would be able to contact the BEA GEAR UP Mentor Coordinator by phone and/or e-mail at any time. A website was established to list questions/concerns raised by the parents and a chat room was provided so parents could engage in meaningful discussions on relevant topics or issues. BEA GEAR UP technology was expected to significantly increase mentoring contact both between parents and with the BEA GEAR UP Mentor Coordinator. Learning how to effectively use the computer would be one of the learning activities undertaken by the parent mentors and their parent mentees, serving as a catalyst for mentoring to take place.

BEA GEAR UP PARENT MENTOR MODEL IMPLEMENTATION

The BEA GEAR UP parent mentor model was scheduled to begin in Spring 2000. Given the number of sixth grade students involved in the GEAR UP program, it was assumed that we would have no problem recruiting the 70 volunteer parent mentors needed to launch the parent mentor program. As mentioned earlier, each of the seven educational corridors involved in the GEAR UP program have a full-time GEAR UP staff member located at each school. The Cohort Coordinator works with the school administration, support staff, teachers, parents and all the sixth grade students at their site and has daily contact with the students and access to

their parents. All Cohort Coordinators received in-service training on the parent mentor model and on their specific responsibilities related to its implementation. The BEA GEAR UP Mentor Coordinator was responsible for the overall implementation of the parent mentor model and its on-going parent activities, so initially the sole, but crucial, duty of the Cohort Coordinator was parent recruitment.

The parent mentor model was explained to the Cohort Coordinators in December, allowing them two months to recruit their volunteer parents, and we scheduled our first parent mentor meeting for February 1, 2000. As we approached the February date, it became apparent that we were not going to have our anticipated number of parents. It appeared that the Cohort Coordinators needed more time, as they had so many other responsibilities that they were not able to devote the time needed to the recruitment efforts. We re-scheduled our first parent mentor meeting for the month of April, after the Spring recess, by which time over 40 parents had volunteered to participate in the parent mentor program.

Although we did not have the 70 parents anticipated, it was decided that we needed to initiate the program and pick up the additional parents as we went along. The first of the four training workshops was scheduled for the first Thursday of April, with a session in the afternoon and evening. Another session was scheduled for the following Saturday morning. Four parents showed up for the Thursday afternoon workshop, nine parents attended the evening session, and six came on Saturday morning, a total of 19. I asked the parents who came for the mentor training session why they thought so few parents had come and why they had come. Among the typical parent responses were:

- "I don't really know why I'm here. I was just asked by our Cohort Coordinator if I could show up for this meeting."
- "I think some of the parents feel uncomfortable that it is being held at a university campus and all.
- "I know some parents that said they would be here, but I think they said that to the coordinator only because they don't know how to say no or can't in front of somebody."

Although I heard these comments from the parents I did not really "listen" to what was being said. I was more focused on my own feelings regarding the small number of parents that showed up. With great disappointment and bewilderment concerning the small number of parents who participated, the second series of three workshops was scheduled for the following week. The workshops were very difficult to conduct due to the small number of participants and, in addition to having so few people, some of the parents needed to bring their children with them, creating quite a challenge for the workshop leader. Many of the activities planned were small group oriented and required a certain amount of dis-

cussion and dialogue among the participants. The presence of children and the constant need to interpret what was being said, as several parents were limited English speakers, made sharing difficult.

Cohort Coordinators were asked to make contact with their parent volunteers and determine why so few of them attended the meetings. Many parents indicated that something had come up at the last minute and that they would be at the second meeting. This created a training problem and the agenda for the second meeting had to be modified to accommodate both returning and new parents. The following week, only two parents showed up for the Thursday morning meeting and the BEA GEAR UP Coordinator canceled the meeting. Eight parents came to the evening meeting, some of whom were returning parents and a few who were new parents. Three parents who had previously come to the sessions, came to the Saturday session. With tremendous frustration, we tried to discover why so few parents were coming for the training workshops. We decided to conduct some meetings with the BEA GEAR UP staff and the education corridor Cohort Coordinators to discuss the problem. Some of the corridors had no parents at all participating in the mentor program, while two of the corridors seemed to represent most of the parent participants. The Cohort Coordinators indicated that it was very difficult to contact parents and to get them to commit to the program. We discussed possible strategies and agreed to continue with our recruitment efforts. In the meantime, we decided we would continue to work with the parents that were demonstrating some degree of commitment to the program.

A total of 23 parents participated in the first three parent mentor training sessions. We decided to combine all the parents from the three different workshop schedules and hold the last meeting as a single group. This meeting was going to be the last parent workshop during the school year, and at this meeting we planned to discuss and determine the times and dates for the summer training component. Although all the parents agreed on the date and time for the last meeting, only 12 of the 23 parent participants attended. Once again the program agenda had to be modified because we believed it was necessary to spend a considerable amount of time discussing the problems of parent recruitment, poor attendance at training sessions, and the lack of commitment to the program in general.

This was a very productive meeting for me. Some "light" began to appear, as it became apparent that the majority of the parents consistently attending the training sessions were already active in their childrens' schools. Our problem was now becoming clearer and a primary question was delineated: "How do we attract parents to participate in a parent mentor program who, for whatever reasons, are involved, very little, if at all, in school or school related activities to begin with?"

The 12 parents attending the last training session agreed that the summer training focus would be on both a continuation of the mentor training and the development of a parent recruitment plan. We agreed that we

would contact the parents that did not come to the last meeting and let them know of the summer dates and plans. I expressed the need to take a look at the parent mentor model and to revise it based upon our experiences so far. The BEA GEAR UP Administration believed that as this was the first year of the project, we needed to be more patient and consider some different techniques and strategies for recruitment and implementation. We all agreed that the program had potential and it was too early to abandon it.

In August 2000, four of the seven Cohort Coordinators met for in-service training on the student mentor program that would be initiated in September of that year. The other three Cohort Coordinators were trained in September. During the August training, some time was devoted to discussing the parent mentor program, specifically parent recruitment and commitment, and what strategies we could use to enhance our efforts.

In addition to moving forward with the first group of parent mentors, a second group of parents was recruited to begin training during the fall of 2000. In September, we worked with both the volunteer parent mentor groups. We invited the 23 parents from the first group who had participated in one or more of the previous parent mentor training sessions to a "Welcome Back" meeting. Nine of the 23 parents came to this meeting. As before, several children were brought along and some of the parents that attended spoke only limited English. The BEA GEAR UP Mentor Coordinator facilitated the meeting and decided that the entire time would be devoted to a discussion as to why so few parents appeared to be committed to the initiative. The following statements are representative of the reasons identified by parents.

Mr. Garcia: "Many parents still lack sufficient information as to what the parent mentor program is all about."

Ms. Marker: "The incentives of a free course through adult education and/or continuing education is not all that meaningful."

Ms. Perkins: "It's difficult getting to the college and the additional transportation cost."

Ms. Alicia: "Many parents are single parents who work full days and still take care of their children and other responsibilities, they just don't have the time or energy to commit."

Ms. Crow: "Parents have enough of their own problems and cannot be bothered with some other parent's problems."

Sally: "Hosting the meeting on a college campus was uncomfortable for some parents, especially those parents who have never even been to their child's middle school, let alone go to a college campus."

Ms. Bloom: "Some parents' self esteem is too low and believe that they have nothing to contribute."

This discussion was very fruitful. This time I made sure that I *heard* what was being said and an action plan was put into place. We decided to conduct a computer training session with the 23 parent mentor group. We also decided to provide childcare as well as transportation reimbursement. While this meeting was being set up, a meeting schedule for new parent mentors was also established, which would include the same services. Food had been provided at all the previous parent sessions and we decided that this would continue as parents indicated it was an important and positive part of the sessions. We all felt inspired and Cohort Coordinators reported that 34 new parents had expressed an interest in the parent mentor program. We became hopeful that with the original 23 parents, we might be able to get our 70 parents yet!

In October, 2000, the computer training workshop for the initial parent mentor group took place at Lehman College. The training was held in one of the private computer labs of the Division of Education. Childcare, food, and transportation reimbursement were provided. Seven parents attended the workshop. The parents participating found the workshop very helpful, and all requested that we consider providing an additional session in the future. Once again, however, we were disappointed at the low attendance.

That same week, workshops were held for 34 other parents who indicated their interest in participating in the parent mentor program. As for previous sessions, the parents had a choice of three workshops they could attend, with sessions scheduled for Thursday morning, Wednesday evening, and Saturday morning. No one signed up for the Saturday morning workshop. Several participants signed up for the other two sessions, with many parents indicating that they did not know for sure which of the two sessions they would attend, but that it would be one or the other. With several known participants in each workshop and the knowledge that several more would attend one of the sessions, we proceeded with all the arrangements. Four parents came to the Wednesday evening workshop and three attended the Thursday morning workshop. Following the workshops, I explained to the BEA GEAR UP Administration that the workshops could not occur with such small numbers of participants. I expressed the need to re-visit the parent mentor model, as was suggested earlier, and to consider making changes or modifications based upon what we had learned from the process thus far. Once again, I shared the responses from the parents that had participated in the sessions. I was asked to continue to be patient and to see how many parents would attend the next round of scheduled workshops the following week.

For the second round of parent workshops, the same four parents came to the Wednesday evening workshop and two of the same parents showed up for the Thursday morning workshop. At this point, I told the BEA GEAR UP Administration that as the BEA GEAR UP Mentor Coordinator, I could not proceed with the parent mentor model as it was presently structured. The BEA GEAR UP Administration supported my position and

asked for my recommendations. We decided to use what we had learned to reconstruct the program and try again.

LESSONS LEARNED: THE REVISED PARENT MENTOR MODEL

The "lessons learned" from this experience are mine, based on my reflections and the information I gathered as the BEA GEAR UP Mentor Coordinator. These conclusions and recommendations may not be supported or agreed to by the BEA GEAR UP Administration. It is important to remember that the BEA GEAR UP project is a major effort in both its overall program design and scope of involvement. The Lehman College/BEA GEAR UP program is the second largest funded program of its kind in the nation. As with many multi-million dollar grants, coordinating and developing a working relationship with the many individuals and numerous organizations involved is a complex and delicate task. The comments and/or criticisms are in no way an attempt to minimize the tremendous amount of hard work and effort that was expended by the BEA GEAR UP management and others involved with this project.

Perhaps the primary lesson learned from this endeavor was that the size of a project can greatly influence its implementation. In this situation, the project may have been too large and extensive. Upon, reflection, I believe that the GEAR-UP project could have been better served by breaking its major components into smaller, more manageable units. The notion of trying to provide everything for everybody, for both program consistency and political reasons, can be very difficult if not impossible. Many program components of the GEAR-UP project could have been pilot-tested in one or two school districts initially, as opposed to implementing the full-scale program over all the sites associated with the project simultaneously. For example, the school guidance component could have been pilot-tested in sites A and B, the parent mentor program tested in sites C and D, and the professional development component tested in sites E and F. As I reflected upon the challenges and difficulties with the parent mentor program, other important lessons include:

1. *It is important to recognize when something is not working.* All aspects of the activity need to be documented. In the case of the parent mentoring program, as soon as it was obvious that the goals to be met were not being realized, we should have taken actions that responded to the documented problems.
2. *Don't lose sight of the goals you are trying to achieve.* Knowing the big picture is important, but don't forget to keep your eyes on the activities/steps involved in getting there. The administrative focus here

was on the GEAR UP program as a whole, and not on the parent mentor program specifically.

3. *It is necessary to consider the context and the culture when establishing a program.* I operated behind the scenes in the implementation of the program model. I believe this prevented me from understanding the context and the sites to help the Cohort Coordinators. We should have recognized that the six districts involved were very different from one another. Completely different cultures and levels of administrative support and involvement with the parent mentor program existed in each district. We needed to consider this when creating recruitment and implementation plans. Thus, each of the Cohort Coordinators had very different "jobs" to perform, based upon their school and its culture and administrative set up. Although they were all responsible for the same BEA GEAR UP tasks, the extent to which they could be properly implemented was not the same for all of them. This needed to be considered, discussed, and integrated into the planning and implementation processes.
4. *Assure that the context and setting of training sessions is comfortable for the participants.* The college setting was an unfamiliar and in some cases somewhat uncomfortable one for many parents. Parent meetings should have taken place at the different schools and not on a college campus, especially at the onset of the project. Perhaps after parents had become used to one another and more familiar with the project some sessions could have been held on the college campus as part of trying to encourage parents to view it as a place that they and their children were welcome.
5. *Recognize and capitalize on the strengths that exist in the program.* As I reflected upon my own leadership I realized that I had become so concerned about the parents who were not at the meetings that I failed to adequately "see" and value those who were present. I failed to recognize that I had many dedicated and committed parents who wanted to become involved. Although they were only a small group, they were a cohort of parents that we could have used and involved in a more concrete and meaningful ways. It was obvious that these parents cared deeply about their children, the children of others, the parents of other children, and their schools.
6. *Examine what is working and why.* An analysis of the parent participation roster revealed that close to 80 percent of the parents attending the workshops came from two of the seven school corridors. We should have examined this more closely and investigated the factors that created this result. This might have helped us to be more successful in the other corridors.

In an effort to put some of these lessons to good use, we met with the parents who had been actively involved in the program and asked them to help us redesign the model. They recommended the following actions:

1. Rather than trying to implement the parent mentor model in all education corridors at the same time, which is akin to raising the Titanic, focus on only the two education corridors representing the majority of parent interest. Ask the parents from the other five education corridors who were active participants in the mentor program, to join one of the other two key corridors.
2. Form a parent mentor leadership team at each of the sites. Have them work directly with me to develop a parent recruitment plan. Have these parent team leaders accompany me on home visits to potential parent mentors and participate in speaking engagements at local schools and other locations such as churches to acquire potential mentors and mentees.
3. Conduct parent meetings at the schools or other community-based locations as part of a grassroot effort to let parents gain a sense of control over the program.
4. Provide food and childcare services for all meetings. Also provide transportation reimbursement for participants.

In our revised program, parents will be active participants in the development, implementation, and evaluation of the parent mentor model. We will use what we learn from our efforts at the two selected sites to modify and then appropriately replicate the program at the other five education corridors, always keeping in mind that each site is unique and will have its own special needs. By taking local factors into account, I believe that the goals of the parent mentor program will eventually be achieved at all of the sites.

I look forward to continuing our efforts in pursuing a parent mentor program as part of the BEA GEAR UP Program. I am pleased to be able to be a part of connecting parents with parents for the well-being of children through mentoring.

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CHAPTER 3

PROJECT NIA (PURPOSE) A University/School Partnership to Enhance Student Achievement and Success

Ivan Eugene Watts, Nirmala Erevelles, and Kimberly Lenease King

You cannot learn to play tennis if you have never seen it played. You cannot teach children the power of wonderful ideas if they have not been immersed in a community that cares about wonderful ideas, that believes in them, that explores them, and that puts them into practice. (Meier, 1996, p. 131)

In recent years the number of students in the United States who are in danger of school failure, expulsion, and dropping out of school has grown. A large percent of these students come from economically deprived situations. According to Reglin (1998), this population of students often has low basic skills attainment, learning problems, poor grades, disciplinary problems, and high absenteeism. One approach schools have used to assist students in overcoming these difficulties is through the development of mentoring programs designed to help at-risk students succeed. Many of these programs use parents and other adults to provide instruction and to support students in establishing and meeting positive life goals. Mentors are also used as advocates in developing alternative educational plans for students who are at-risk (McPartland & Nettles, 1991). Such mentoring programs are believed to be a powerful way to provide adult contacts for these youth, who may be isolated from adults in their schools, homes, com-

munities and workplaces (Flaxman, 1992). Yet, despite the efforts of advocates and mentors, there remains a substantial number of urban and rural school districts that have no alternative educational plan for managing at-risk students (Reglin, 1998).

In response to the challenges faced by at-risk students in our community, we developed and implemented a mentoring program for educationally and economically disadvantaged students. This paper describes this program titled Project Nia. The word Nia means "purpose" and captures the essence of what we were trying to focus on as we designed and implemented the programs. The goal of the program was to establish mentoring relationships between students and university faculty and to facilitate mentoring relationships between students in the school in order to create a sense of purpose for students as they engaged in their school experience.

AN OVERVIEW OF PROJECT NIA

Project Nia was instituted at Ujima Elementary/High School. Although they operate as two separate schools, Unima Elementary and Ujima High School occupy a joint compound of buildings, situated at opposite ends of one another. The schools are located in a rural, economically disadvantaged, racially segregated community populated predominantly by African Americans. Auburn University, where we work as faculty members is approximately ten miles away.

In stark contrast to the schools in neighboring communities, which perform at high levels on standardized tests, the State Department of Education has placed Ujima schools on Academic Caution. Schools classified under this category have a majority of students scoring in Stanines 1–4 on the Stanford Achievement Test.

Our primary intent in organizing Project Nia was to mobilize resources from Auburn University in order to impact the academic performance of Ujima students. We designed, sought funding, and recruited faculty mentors to pilot the project in the summer of 2000. Five faculty members of color and five students were involved in this initial project. There was also one peer mentor from the high school who worked with the faculty to help coordinate the project and mentor the students. The second phase of the project occurred during the summer of 2001. Six additional student mentees (five recent sixth grade graduates and the twin sister of a student-participant from the previous year) were added to the original five students returning from Project Nia 2000. We also included a peer mentor who was not the same person used in the previous year. We recruited three new mentors and five more faculty members committed to facilitating workshops aimed at improving the students' academic skill development. Thus,

by the end of the second year of Project Nia 2001, we had 12 faculty members and 1 peer who worked with 11 student mentees.

Before describing the project more fully and sharing our experiences, we will provide a theoretical perspective upon which Nia was founded. We do this to provide an understanding of why we believed that a mentoring program of this type would be of value in this situation. This theoretical grounding will be followed by a description of the project implementation, lessons learned, and implications for those considering or implementing mentoring programs with similar populations.

Theoretical Perspective

Mentoring as an intervention for at-risk teens is becoming increasingly popular despite the lack of conclusive documentation regarding its effectiveness. Historically, mentoring has been viewed as a useful intervention for students considered at-risk, vulnerable, or likely to be unprepared for adult living, and as a way to shore up inner-city and poor youth against delinquency, dropping out, teen pregnancy, unemployment, and other negative life situations. Assisting young people to negotiate their life experiences through formal mentoring dates as far back as 1902 with the formation of the first Big Brothers agency (Royse, 1998). Furano, Roaf, Styles, and Branch (1993) claim that though programs such as Big Brothers/Big Sisters have been in existence for nearly 100 years, they have failed to conclusively demonstrate that young people fare better than those who do not participate in such programs. However, in an extensive study of this program in 1995, Tierney and Grossman found powerful outcomes for students involved in Big Brothers/Big Sisters programs indicating that this involvement had a significant positive impact on student achievement and school success.

Despite this conflicting evidence, mentoring programs that rely on one-on-one relationships continue to be a popular approach when targeting the needs of at-risk youth. McPartland and Nettles (1991) conclude that these one-on-one relationships help students make impressive gains in school attendance and in academic performance. These authors identify three types of one-on-one relationships that can emerge in a mentoring program:

1. primary relationships which involve a high degree of attachment, trust, importance, and enjoyment;
2. secondary relationships, which resemble primary relationships but are less developed; and,
3. non-significant relationships that are marked by distrust and distance (p. 570).

They identified primary relationships as having the greatest impact on students' lives since these relationships represent a significant time commitment on the part of the mentor. This commitment is closely connected to the element of care.

The German philosopher Martin Heidegger (1962) described care as the very "Being" of human life and a caring relationship as "a connection or encounter between two human beings–a carer and a recipient of care, or cared-for" (p. 000). Heidegger argued that in order for the relationship to be described as caring, it had to be reciprocal. In other words, "a failure on the part of either carer or cared-for to be reciprocal actually blocks completion of the caring relationship such that even though there may be a relationship—that is, an encounter or connection in which each party feels something toward the other—it is not a *caring* relationship" (Noddings, 1992, p. 15). This argument for caring can also be carried over to the mentoring relationship. For example, Hamovitch (2000) has argued for the mentoring relationship to reflect "tenacious caring"—a caring that demands continual guidance, commitment of the giver, stamina, and painstaking attention (Houston, 2000). Additionally, Zorn (2000) points out that "when at least one adult took a tenacious interest in a student, that student stood a better chance of staying in school and progressing" (p. 105).

This type of tenacious caring is particularly important and needed for youth of color whose life situations reflect both economic and educational disadvantage. Jonathan Kozol (1992) reasserts this need for "tenacious caring" in urban public schools that he describes as:

> extraordinary unhappy places. With few exceptions, they reminded me [Kozol] of "garrisons" or outposts in a foreign nation. Housing projects, bleak and tall surrounded by perimeter walls lined with barbed wire often stood adjacent to the schools I visited. The schools were surrounded frequently by signs that indicated DRUG-FREE ZONE. Their doors were guarded. Police sometimes patrolled the halls. The windows were often covered with grates . . . I was dismayed to walk or ride for blocks and blocks through neighborhoods where every face was black, where there were simply *no white people anywhere.* (p. 5)

While much of the literature on at-risk students has focused on the conditions in urban public schools, students from rural communities attending schools like Ujima Elementary and High School also find themselves in difficult circumstances—an issue that we will discuss later in this chapter. Often, students raised in such communities are educated in schools where low academic expectations prevail (Comer, 1980). For example, Kozol (1992) quotes the superintendent of the East St. Louis school district when she says "Gifted children ... are everywhere in East St. Louis, but their gifts are lost to poverty and turmoil and the damage done by knowing that they

are written off by society" (p. 34). This "writing off" occurs because too often, these young and potentially talented students attend schools that are viewed within and outside of the school system as "hopeless." Thus, mentoring relationships become paramount for the young boys and girls that must persist and endure despite the abject conditions in which they live.

Since most of these economically disadvantaged areas are predominantly African American, there are several studies that have focused on the significance of mentoring for African American children. In his mentoring project for African American inner-city boys called Project 2000, Spencer (1996) argued that it is imperative that adult black males serve as mentors to African American boys in elementary schools in order to curtail the tide of violence and crime in urban centers in the United States. He is convinced that African American boys need to see that African American men love and care for them and are seriously concerned about their success in school. In an effort to move away from the context of hopelessness that haunts their lives, Spencer argues that such mentoring relationships will be instrumental in assuring that

> African American boys from poor urban areas ... learn to dream of a better future, for if one cannot dream, the future is now. The tools that will allow these boys to look beyond the now and expand their vision of the future lie within the African American community. (p. 7)

Similarly, Taylor et al. (1999) address the need for adult African American females to mentor adolescent African American females. Their study indicated that such mentoring relationships greatly influence the aspirations of these girls and give them a sense of direction in their lives while improving their grades. Another conclusion of the study pointed to the importance of establishing a trusting relationship between the mentor and mentee that encourages the sharing of secrets, dreams, accomplishments, and failures. The study also found that mentors increasingly become a support for the entire family, often providing emotional and cognitive development to the mentee when the parents or guardians are unavailable and/or ill equipped to do so. Notwithstanding this finding, Taylor et al. (1999) were quick to point out that such mentoring relationships do not in any way supplant the importance of nurturing parent and kinship-based relationships. They, therefore, assert that

> parents and kinship-based relationships continue to be the most important source of social support and care for youngsters regardless of residence or socioeconomic status, ... [even though] other adults are also valued [as role models]. (p. 20)

The significance of these mentoring relationships lie in what they add to the students' lives. Struchen and Porta (1997) describe the mentoring pro-

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cess as one in which "adult role models gather around one or more youths and provide values and decision-making skills" (p. 120). According to Townsel (1997), these relationships expose students to the "assets of support, control, structured time, as well as internal assets such as educational commitment, positive values, and social competence" (p. 126). What becomes a challenge for children in economically disadvantaged communities is that the range of values, skills, and employment opportunities modeled for them are often limited. Consequently, one of the primary goals of mentoring relationships for these students is to expose them to a broader range of options from which to adopt strategies for success.

Setting and Participants

In consonance with the findings and notions posed in the preceding section, we envisioned the goal of Project Nia 2000 to be facilitating the development of mentoring relationships between students from Ujima Elementary school and faculty members from Auburn University to expand students' perspectives of the possibilities for their lives and through this to enhance their school success.

Before presenting the program in detail, we thought it might be helpful to describe the Ujima school setting. The Ujima Schools are located in Alabama, one of the poorest states in the nation. To drive to Ujima from Auburn, one has to follow a dusty road that meanders through a large neighborhood of public housing facilities whose residents are predominantly African American, and then past an affluent rural suburb of predominantly European American residents. Along this road, except for a recently opened upscale restaurant on the outskirts of Ujima, there are few businesses located in Ujima. Aside from a run-down grocery store and another dilapidated laundry shop, the only other buildings are a town hall and ten churches of different Christian denominations that stand in lonely vigil along the dusty road. There is also a community hall and a some historical buildings that are, for the most part, in disrepair.

A rusty railway track runs parallel to a U.S. Highway that links Auburn to Ujima. Taking a left onto a semi-paved road that heaves across a rusty railway track, one bumps past a large trash receptacle and a cotton field redolent with the smell of pesticides and other contaminants before one arrives at Ujima Elementary and High Schools. The school building is a one-level structure that is approximately fifty-feet long, housing two linked buildings that connect the Elementary and High Schools together. Both buildings are clean and cheerful inside. However, students, parents, teachers, and even administrators have complained about the paucity of resources that are made available to the school.

The student population that Ujima Elementary school serves is primarily rural African American, working class and working class poor. Nearly 80 percent of the students at Ujima Elementary and High Schools receive free school lunches—a clear indicator that these students live in an economically depressed area. This fact is further underscored when one drives past the school and enters neighborhoods with unpaved roads bordered on either side by weather beaten trailers sitting in overgrown shrubbery and unkempt yards. Discussions with some of the residents reveal that there is nothing much that goes on in Ujima. In fact, most of Ujima's residents have to leave their immediate area to shop for most of their goods. The governing structures in the area include two municipal government and city school systems, and a less affluent and larger county governing body and school system. Ujima falls under the jurisdiction of the less well-funded county administrative structure. Since public education in this state is primarily funded by sales taxes, these governmental structures exacerbate the shortage of educational resources in economically underdeveloped areas like Ujima.

Project Initiation

Conscious of the desolate conditions in Ujima and the "calculated unfairness" (Kozol 1992, p. 57) relating to the educational opportunities of students attending Ujima Elementary and High Schools, we decided to initiate a mentoring program to provide some additional resources to support some of the students from Ujima and perhaps establish a model that could be implemented on a wider scale in future years. We targeted students who were just entering middle school because scholars have identified this time as a particularly traumatic period in any student's life. Researchers characterize these years as being marked by dramatic physical and psychological changes. During this period, pre-teens are forced to adjust to peer pressure, meet the demands of schools for higher academic achievement, assume greater independence in their daily lives, and inhabit new social and gender roles to support an emerging self-identity (Lawson & McClain 1997; Whitehood 1993). Middle school children often experience high levels of anxiety, low self-esteem, problematic behavior, deteriorating social skills, and low academic achievement, while at the same time finding it difficult to find or employ resources to handle the stress of these teenage years (Reglin, 1997). Consequently, some students who have been academically successful at the elementary level show a marked decline in their achievement levels in middle school, resulting in low academic performance and an increased possibility of dropping out of high school.

We collaborated with the administration of Ujima Elementary School to assist us in identifying students to participate in the program. We initiated

the first phase in the summer of 2000 and added a second group of students and mentors in the summer of 2001. During the design phase of the project, team members met with the principals of the elementary and high schools, and the assistant principal of the elementary school. While both principals supported the project, the assistant principal agreed to assist us in the identification of participants. We decided to work with students who had a moderate (C to low D) academic grade point average, who appeared to have potential to do better, and who had strong parental support. We choose to work with these students because, although research suggests that, with this population, even those students who succeed in elementary school can experience failure in high school, we viewed our potential participants as more vulnerable to failure than those already succeeding in school. Since research also strongly suggests that parental support is an important indicator in student success, we believed that working with students whose parents would probably support and welcome our involvement with their children would also enhance the mentoring relationships and potential student success.

Concurrent with the selection of student participants, we contacted Auburn University faculty members from racially diverse minority populations. Faculty mentors were selected based on their willingness to volunteer their time to work with the project and on their commitment to programmatic goals. Struchen and Porta (1997) warn against selecting mentors whose social distance is so great that the mentor's world seems irrelevant or even nonsensical. On the other hand, they emphasize the need to create bonds between the adult and student if the mentoring relationship is to be successful. Fortunately, faculty members volunteering for the program either had backgrounds similar to those of the student participants or had experience working with children in similar circumstances. These conditions facilitated the establishment of the mentoring relationships.

During Project Nia 2000, there were two African American women, one Indian woman and two African American men who served as mentors. All of the mentors held terminal degrees in their disciplines; four held doctorate degrees and one had a master's degree. Mentors hailed from three colleges: education, engineering, and architectural design. During the second year of the program, there were three African American males, seven African American females, a woman from India, and one Asian American woman. These faculty members represented the following disciplines: computer and software engineering, counseling and counseling psychology, education, English, industrial design, and textile engineering.

In order to lessen the distance between faculty and students and to facilitate project success we strived to make the best possible mentor-mentee matches. Two of us went into the school and observed the students in their classroom environments. We talked to the students as well as their sixth grade teachers to get a better sense of the students' personalities and interests. We then discussed suggestions made by the Assistant Principal and

classroom teachers about the type of personalities the students seemed to be most comfortable with. Care was taken to ensure that each mentor/mentee relationship would best meet the needs of each student.

We decided to use a summer long program, which would provide a maximum amount of contact time in order to allow the mentor and student to develop a close relationship. Mentors were instructed to integrate students into their activities while also planning activities outside of their normal daily schedule. The mentees were picked up from Ujima elementary at 8:30 A.M. and brought to the Auburn University campus, four days a week. They arrived at the campus about 9:00 A.M. and were picked up at Auburn University at 3:00 P.M. and returned back to their school. While at Auburn University they engage in numerous activities as described in Table 1.

Every Monday morning for one hour, student participants spent time with a peer-mentor, a fifteen year-old African American male from Ujima High School, who was chosen because of his own school success. They used this time to discuss setting goals and review homework assignments given by the mentors. The peer mentor also used this time to find out what constructive activities the mentees participated in over the weekend. University mentors were always welcomed to attend these sessions. After the one-hour session with the peer mentor, mentees spent the remaining day with their assigned mentor. Much of the time spent with mentors focused on mentees' goals and responsibilities to self and community. Mentors facilitated

TABLE 1
Project Nia 2000–Summer Schedule

Time	*Monday*	*Tuesday*	*Wednesday*	*Thursday*
9:00 – 10:00	Goal Setting with Peer Mentor—Tony Simpson, Drs. King and Watts	Meeting with Drs. King or Watts	Time spent with Your Assigned Mentor	Meeting with Drs. King or Watts
10:00 – 11:00	Time spent with Your Assigned Mentor	Critical Thinking and Research Skills with Drs. Erevelles and Young		Critical Thinking and Research Skills with Drs. Erevelles and Young
11:00 – 12:00	Lunch	Lunch	Lunch	Lunch
12:00 – 3:00	Time spent with Your Assigned Mentor	Self- esteem Building with Dr. Irene Houston	Time spent with Your Assigned Mentor	Self-esteem Building with Dr. Irene Houston
3:00 P.M.	Pick up	Pick up	Pick up	Pick up

the development of practical plans to meet specified goals. For example, one of the mentees wanted to be a football player and a lawyer. He knew that these two professions would earn him a lot of money, however, he did not understand how to achieve these goals. So, his university mentor discussed what he needed to do to work towards getting into college, since college is the primary avenue for playing football after high school and is a pre-requisite for entering law school.

In addition to the individual attention that they received from their mentors, student participants attended large group meetings facilitated by two of the organizers. In these meetings, students focused on the development of their math, science, and reading skills. Mentors used resources from the Learning Resources Library in the College of Education at Auburn University, as well as Internet Websites designed specifically to enhance skills in these areas when working with the students. The students were also taken to Auburn University's Main library where they were encouraged to search the library catalogue via the computer, check out children's fiction, and produce both oral and written reports about the books they read. Two of the girls were eager to write short stories and so they were encouraged to type them into the computer and then edit them for corrections. Additionally, the mentees were involved in the daily activities of a university professor—an experience that gave them a sense of responsibility and importance and thus, we believe, contributed to their self-esteem. For example, one student participant handed out assignments to college students after which she explained the assignment to the class. Another student participated in her mentor's Interior Design class by designing a chair.

Although students were encouraged to engage in learning activities, faculty took care to minimize the amount of time that students spent in formal classes so that they could just "hang out" with the university professor so that informal conversations would naturally occur. Mentors and mentees reported conversations ranging from how to manage anger, the need to focus on those things most challenging, and likes and dislikes. It was hoped that these "hanging out" activities would enhance the relationship between mentors and mentees and that it would help mentees to become more comfortable in the university environment so they would begin to view it as a place where they belonged.

In addition to the time students spent with their individual mentors, students attended a seminar on critical thinking and research development twice a week. As part of this seminar, students were encouraged to choose their own research topic, find resources and information on the topic on the internet, outline a presentation for the topic, and present their research to a large audience. These presentations were made at a graduation ceremony at the end of the summer. Students also attended a 1½ hour session designed to focus on personal and academic problem-solving skills.

Here, students worked on creative activities that were directed towards building self-esteem and self-confidence.

During the second summer, the number of academic seminars was increased. As noted on Table 2, while the amount of time students spent on campus remained the same (Monday thru Thursday from 9:00a.m.–3:00 p.m.), the activities during the second summer were more structured. We made the decision to target the development of a broader range of skills to foster academic success. Although this meant that faculty mentors spent slightly less individual time with their mentees, we learned that students really benefited from having more time to deal with academic skills. During Nia 2001, we began each day began with goal setting. We reviewed homework, played games designed to build their vocabulary, and established goals for behavior and performance. Seminars dealt with the following topics: writing, math, computers, personality development, and wellness/fitness. All of these workshops were facilitated by Auburn University faculty members.

At the end of the summer mentoring programs, a graduation ceremony was organized to honor the students for working hard and to highlight their accomplishments. Parents, program staff, and key campus administrators attended a luncheon/reception to recognize the students' progress in the program. As noted earlier, as part of this graduation ceremony, each student made a presentation of the research that they had done—a task that was considered daunting, but one that each took up with remarkable cour-

TABLE 2
Project Nia 2001—Master Schedule

Time	*Monday*	*Tuesday*	*Wednesday*	*Thursday*
9:00 – 9:30	Goal Setting with Drs. Watts, King & Erevelles	Meet with Drs. Watts, King & Erevelles	Meeting with Drs. Watts, King & Erevelles	Goal Setting with Drs. Watts, King & Erevelles
9:30 – 11:00	Time with Mentor	Math Workshop with Dr. Strutchens	Personality Development with Dr. Houston	Wellness/Fitness Workshop with Dr. Jackson
11:00 – 11:15	Break	Break	Break	Break
11:15 – 12:30	Writing Workshop with Dr. Claiborne	Time with Mentor	Writing Workshop with Dr. Leighton	Time with Mentor
12:30 – 1:30	Lunch	Lunch	Lunch	Lunch
2:00 – 3:00	Time with Mentor	Computers with Dr. Gilbert	Time with Mentor	Computers with Dr. Gilbert
3:00	Pick-up	Pick-up	Pick-up	Pick-up

age and seriousness. During the second summer, students shared other work they had produced during the summer as well. Two students read original poems while another read poetry by Gwendolyn Brooks. Another student read his response to a piece written by W.E.B. DuBois about the worth of African American men. Yet another student shared about the person who inspired her the most and why. Throughout the summer, students had read and studied the Nia Pledge: *To realize my purpose, I will be loyal to myself, pursue excellence in school and be a leader in my community. This is my pledge.*

This pledge was designed to stimulate students' thinking, foster their academic and personal development, and give them a sense of belonging and accomplishment. Students memorized this pledge and recited it collectively at the close of their graduation ceremony. Each student received a plaque as a token of our appreciation for the effort they put forth to learn more about their goals, themselves, their school, and their families and to fulfill their purpose in all of these contexts. We had T-shirts designed which carry the pledge and emblem representing Project Nia. The T-Shirts were distributed to students and our benefactors at graduation. We've found that the students wear them with pride throughout the school year. Lastly, as teenagers and students from low income families, we knew that money would be an important motivator for them. Through donations from varied sources, at the graduation ceremony, students were presented with a scholarship check for $200.00. We hoped the money would help their parents purchase clothes and school supplies for them. We saw this as a concrete incentive for consistent attendance and good behavior and a way to foster their understanding that academic success can bring many rewards, including better financial well-being.

Although students have graduated from the summer program, their involvement in Project Nia continues. Mentors have committed to meeting with their mentees on a bi-monthly basis and to meet regularly as a group to support one another and improve the program on an ongoing basis.

IN RETROSPECT

We have completed two summers of Project Nia. We have kept contact with our students and with each year, we have noticed an improvement in student grades, a growing willingness to stick to the difficult things, and a growing attachment between mentors/mentees, the school,and the university, and among all involved. In order to ensure that the objectives of Project Nia are met, we have adopted more rigorous evaluation procedures involving both mentors and student participants. Because social and academic development are critical to the success of this particular age group, mentors keep a journal documenting their experiences with their students. Additionally, the mentors meet collectively as a focus group and with the assistance of a group facilitator to critically assess the program's goals.

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Much of this time is spent discussing the on-going development of our mentees and future possibilities for Project Nia 2002.

Each participating student kept a journal of his/her experiences in the 2001 summer program. In addition to these journals, each student will be interviewed to examine his/her overall satisfaction with the program. Interviews will be taped, transcribed, and analyzed using the computer program QSR NUDIST. It is believed that these assessment procedures will enable us to gather qualitative information on the experiences of all program participants.

We have also adopted long-term evaluation procedures in an effort to track these participants through high school to their enrollment in post-secondary institutions. To do so, each participating student will keep a weekly journal about their school experiences and progress. Mentors will also maintain close relationships with their mentees' parents and teachers and document in writing all meetings with these parties. Mentors will also keep a journal that will critically evaluate their bi-monthly meetings with their students. These activities are designed to allow us to monitor each student's progress during the academic year and to make decisions about what skills the students and their mentors will need to work on during the following summer. Additionally, we believe these activities will allow us to gauge the intensity of the mentoring relationships among the faculty participants and their students and to make programmatic adjustments as needed.

Evans (1992), at the beginning of a book on mentoring, writes: "Sooner or later, almost everyone gets upset with American public schools ... this is a book about people who decided to 'do something about it'" (p. 10). The challenge in "doing something about it" has been discovering the types of one-on-one relationships that are most significant in the lives of those who are most often touched by difficulties in public schools-economically and academically disadvantaged students. Our involvement and examination of Project Nia has helped us to make some of those discoveries. The experience has made us more aware of the complexities involved. However, it has also made us more aware of the simple wisdom that caring relationships can make a difference. Our relationships with our mentees and with one another have enriched our lives and we believe the lives of our mentees. We hope our story will enable others to engage in similar experiences and enhance success and possibilities for other children who need some guidance in seeing, understanding, and reaching their life purposes.

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CHAPTER 4

FROM IMPERSONAL POLICY TO PERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS
An Educational Researcher's Experience with Mentoring

Gregory J. Fritzberg and Aragaw Alemayehu

INTRODUCTION

During the Fall of 1995, three seemingly unrelated events occurred which ultimately added great meaning to my life. After a long summer of studying and some scheduling difficulties typical of academic life, I passed the "general exam" related to my doctoral coursework at the University of Washington's College of Education in mid-November. I had reached that critical stage in every aspiring educational researcher's life where one transitions from primarily learning from others to setting one's own intellectual agenda. Surely I over-simplify, but anyone who has survived a Ph.D. understands the emotional difference between drafting a dissertation proposal and taking the necessary but laborious knowledge and skill inventory that precedes it. Indeed, it is right here that one becomes an educational researcher and not a student, and I personally felt hungry to begin.

A second event transpired in December of that year that seemed much less significant at the time. A support group that my wife and I attended hosted a Christmas party for an Ethiopian family that had recently emi-

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grated to Seattle by way of Sudan. Not surprisingly, the children spoke better English than their parents, but the fun began when ten year-old Aragaw and I found another seemingly universal means of communication: "trash-can basketball." After a couple of hours of "horse," "around the world," and "one-on-one," the party ended and we agreed to play some real basketball the following week. We did exactly that, and a mentoring relationship eventually developed that has impacted both of our lives profoundly. But before we tell that story, I wish to communicate a third event that not only seemed less significant than my rite of passage in graduate school, but which I did not even know about at the time.

Given the emerging popularity of mentoring as a social panacea in the middle-1990s, Big Brothers/Big Sisters of America (BB/BS) was impacted by exaggerated claims for success being made by myriad upstart mentoring programs. After almost a century as the preeminent mentoring organization in the United States, BB/BS fundraisers faced new demands to "prove" the effectiveness of their program. In 1995, they commissioned a rigorous social experiment involving almost 1000 disadvantaged youth between the ages of ten and sixteen, half of whom were assigned mentors and all of whom were monitored for eighteen months. During that time, the presence of an adult mentor in the lives of the experimental group made significant differences, even though the mentors had not been trained to deal with the issues that typically challenge at-risk youth. Young persons in the experimental group were 46 percent less likely to try drugs for the first time, 52 percent less likely to skip school, and 33 percent less likely to commit acts of violence against their peers (Sipe, 1996). In this case, empirical research validated a rather intuitive truth: a consistent relationship with a healthy adult friend greatly increases the chances that a young person born into poverty will achieve educational and occupational success.

How did these three events intersect in my life and contribute to a story worth telling? The answer to this question hinges upon the issues I pursued as an educational researcher once freed to carve my own path. A former youth minister and teacher at an alternative high school in South Seattle, I was troubled by the stubborn "achievement gap" between middle-class and poor students, especially the fact that a disproportionate amount of the latter group were non-white. From my viewpoint, the advocates of the so-called "excellence movement" of the 1980s and 1990s were not sufficiently attentive to how poor students would fare in the shift toward standards-based education. I did not oppose the idea of constructing explicit learning standards and designing tests to measure whether or not students met them, but I believed that schools serving large numbers of poor students would require much more support than most policy-makers were willing to admit. I was then and still remain committed to conducting research that holds federal and state-level policy-makers accountable for equalizing educational opportunities in American society,

but the very packaging of my dissertation upon publication reveals a shift in my thinking.

Like any writer, I was proud and excited when my typewritten manuscript was transformed into a glossy text, but seeing the cover photograph in color for the first time is what marks the moment in my memory. The publisher had obtained rights to a *Seattle Times* photograph of Aragaw that was fortuitously taken a year or two earlier for an unrelated story about his middle school principal. The picture illustrates beautifully, even a bit eerily, the book's title, *In the Shadow of "Excellence:" Recovering a Vision of Educational Opportunity For All* (Fritzberg, 1999). It shows Aragaw seated in his desk, his right hand clasping a pen and supporting his chin (essentially the pose made famous by Rodin's famous sculpture, "The Thinker"), listening intently to a teacher who cannot be seen. A perfect arc of sunlight cuts across his handsome face and the rest of his figure is in shadows. I know that I will continue to enjoy the book's cover long after I have forgotten most of what is inside. The text speaks of problems that children "like Aragaw"—poor and/or non-white, possibly bilingual—experience in school, and suggests federal and state-level policies to address them. I believe in the policies I advanced in the book, but I am also aware that libraries are full of social and educational policy prescriptions that have never had much impact. However, for me, as an author, Aragaw's photograph continually reminds me of the importance of the human side of these issues and of the need for personal relationships between caring adults and vulnerable youth. These relationships, by definition, impact both participants profoundly.

In the sections that follow, Aragaw and I will take turns telling the story of what clearly has been a rich mentoring friendship for both of us. I will occasionally refer to historically parallel developments within the mentoring movement as a whole in this country, but the bulk of the text that follows will be personal, a narrative rather than a research report. While I will conclude the essay by articulating a few lessons I have learned as a first-time educational mentor, the central goal is to simply contribute two more "voices of mentoring" to the others that make up this edited collection.

OUR BEGINNINGS

Greg: Our first few months after meeting at the 1995 Christmas party basically involved taking our trashcan basketball game to the streets near my apartment or Aragaw's home twenty minutes away. He has become a pretty good basketball player, and I smile when I remember the ten year-old version with all the playground moves—behind the back, under the legs, and so on—and the weak "finish" (he rarely actually put the ball in the hoop). I

started to get to know his family a bit, although a language barrier prevented much communication with his parents. My best memory of that early period was when my wife Marie and I took Aragaw and his sister Agerey out of the city to go horseback riding. This was a first for both of them, not only riding a horse but leaving the city, at least since arriving from Sudan. Again, the grinning ten year-old atop the horse seems so different from the sixteen year-old I know today. The joys of mentoring often come more slowly than the difficulties, but in this case at least, the passage of time adds perspective and a mysterious sense of destiny to our friendship.

It was obvious from the outset that Aragaw was a true exemplar of the "resilient child" (see Duffey, 1998; Hauser, 1999). As Marc Freedman pointed out in his seminal review of the emerging mentoring movement, *The Kindness of Strangers: Adult Mentors, Urban Youth, and the New Volunteerism* (1999), some urban children possess a talent for discovering and taking advantage of adult mentors. I have seen Aragaw interact with enough adults to know that he possesses such a talent. At its deepest level, Aragaw's ability to exploit caring adult relationships (no critical connotation here) is merely an expression of an irrepressible spirit that sees the world in consistently friendly terms. I truly believe he has the capabilities to do wonderful things educationally and occupationally, but at the same time I have often noted a rather winsome naiveté concerning his abilities in the present moment. While this optimism has hurt him more recently when he under-estimates the work involved in certain academic tasks, I believe it was an unmitigated blessing during childhood. Aragaw simply did not see despair around him, and I am increasingly confident he never will, at least the type of despair that leads to despondency and resignation.

Consequently, I was not surprised when Aragaw, then reading well below grade-level, informed me in the Fall of 1996 that he wanted to achieve a 4.0 GPA in his first term as a sixth grader at Madison Middle School. I also was not surprised to learn that I was an integral part of his plan; my tutoring services, that is. For the next year, I visited Aragaw a few times a week in the early mornings before the school bus arrived. I remember that his father, Mangustu, obviously used to a different clock than is typical in our culture (perhaps due to his agrarian roots), was always out on the porch chatting with a friend when I arrived at six a.m. as if it were already afternoon. After we did homework or read the Bible for practice, Aragaw caught the bus and I returned to my basement to do my own "schoolwork," the dissertation proposal.

But in May of 1997, things changed. While celebrating Agerey's birthday at a local restaurant, Marie and I informed them that I had taken a college teaching position across the state and that we were moving a few months later. I could honestly tell Aragaw that leaving this mentoring relationship was one of the hardest things about accepting the position, but that I had trained for just such an opportunity and being 300 miles away was better

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than 3000. He and Agerey had just held our newborn child for the first time, so it was an emotional evening on many levels. While driving home, I was comforted by the fact that for Aragaw an August departure seemed just distant enough to feel unreal, but I knew it would be a blink of an eye. And I also knew that my leaving would be an undeniable blow for both of us.

Aragaw: I was born on November 16, 1984, in a little town in Ethiopia. I lived with both of my parents and an older sister. My father worked as a salesman for a living. He sold bicycles and newspapers. We moved to Sudan because of the war between Ethiopia and Eritria around our town. When the time came for me to go to school, our acceptance to come to the United States came through. We applied to come to America because of the free education and to live in a Christian nation. My parents were worried because we were Christians living in a predominantly Muslim nation. In America we could be safe and free. We came to live in Seattle because my uncle already lived there.

After we found housing, I started school in the fourth grade at Lafayette Elementary School. I was nine years old. School was tough for me because I could not read or speak English. I tried to write cursive, but I did not know what I was writing. My parents said not to whine, that this was the best opportunity for me to learn. I learned most of my English during recess. Once, I saw a couple of boys playing basketball. They asked me if I wanted to play. I accepted their invitation. That was the first time I ever played basketball.

I learned enough to graduate to Madison Middle School. I often felt overwhelmed, but I learned fast. Math was especially difficult for me because I had never learned it until I entered middle school. I barely got through it. There was an Ethiopian man who helped Ethiopian kids with math. He helped me to at least get my homework done, but the concept of math never clicked. I was reading at about the fourth grade level, which was enough to get me through middle school in my other subjects.

One Sunday morning at our Ethiopian Orthodox church, I met a white women named Ellen Kellego. She taught Ethiopian kids English. She took my friend Dawit and me to her church and took us to her house afterwards where she would have activities for us to do. Then one Christmas Eve she decided to invite my family and me to a Christmas party to meet her friends. One of her friends was Greg. My first impression of him when I saw him was that he was an NBA player because he was so tall. He saw that I was bored and we decided to have a basketball shoot-out. Unfortunately, he beat me. That is when we talked about me and about him too. We traded phone numbers and decided to hang out someday.

Greg called me about a week later and we went to see a movie. After the movie, we talked about basketball and whether I would make it to the NBA or not. We talked about each other's lives and how we could arrange time for him to tutor me. He came to my house every Monday, Wednesday, and Friday so we could read for about an hour. He would let me read out loud.

He would listen to me as I read the Bible. That really improved my writing and articulation of the English language.

Unfortunately, the tutoring sessions did not last because Greg and his family had to move to Spokane for a job. I felt sad because he was kind of like a big brother to me. He was the only person I could talk to and the only real friend I ever had. Naively, at 12 years old, I thought I would never speak to or see him again. I did not know how to write letters. Still, Greg gave me his new phone number and address, and we said we would try to stay in touch as much as we could.

A TEMPORARY SEPARATION

Greg: I had regular but infrequent contact with Aragaw during my first two years away, and our interactions were pretty unremarkable. My wife and I had a second child by this time, and when I saw Aragaw during return visits to Seattle our time together typically felt squeezed in, consisting of an hour or two at a fast food restaurant. Neither of us were good phone talkers, and while we flew Aragaw and Agerey out to Spokane a couple of times, I felt protective of them in a neighborhood that was almost completely White. We took them to beautiful Lake Coeur d'Alene an hour's drive away in Northern Idaho, but the proximity of the Aryan Nation encampment at Hayden Lake (they conduct an annual march through the streets of Coeur d'Alene) made us all a little nervous.

I am not sure that either Aragaw or I would have considered ourselves as mentor and protégé during these years. I did not, could not really, assist him and his family in the selection of a high school or the selection of his courses. I felt mildly disappointed when he chose to attend the most geographically distant high school in the whole Seattle system because I knew he would spend inordinate amounts of time on a bus. I felt unclear about the variables that had shaped his parents' choice, but I never expressed this to them. I was mindful of some classic middle-class guilt as my book appeared with Aragaw's face on it and I continued to write and speak about equality of educational opportunity. I often told Aragaw's story with the vague sense that I was marketing him for my own professional gain at the same time he was likely floundering in the Seattle Public School system.

I will say a bit more about how our school system served Aragaw and his family. Before proceeding, however, it is worth revisiting the parallels between my ongoing relationship with Aragaw and the mentoring movement as a whole. At the same time that my mentoring of Aragaw went into neutral gear, the larger movement shifted into overdrive. In September of 1997, the prestigious *Journal of the American Medical Association* published the results of the largest study of adolescent health ever conducted, the

National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health, which involved six surveys of middle and high school students between 1994 and 1996 (Resnick, 1997). One of the prominent findings of the study concerned the critical importance of long-term adult relationships for youth today. An equally prestigious Mentoring Summit occurred in April of that year, spearheaded by Colin Powell's youth advocacy organization, America's Promise. The attendance of Presidents Ford, Carter, Bush, and Clinton, thirty governors, and many members of Congress at the Summit demonstrated that public leaders were hearing the commonsense message that research confirmed: disadvantaged youth need and deserve deliberate, holistic, equity-based social and educational policy reform, but such reform must not neglect the obvious fact that personal relationships with caring adults matter most.

Aragaw: I continued to go to Madison Middle School. It was harder to make friends there because you had to dress nice and be cool. My parents did not have much money, so I could not afford the nice clothes. Therefore, I did not have any friends. After school I would look for someone to help me with my homework. I would go to the public library and look for help from the librarians or even strangers. I never really tried to learn anything. I just wanted to get good grades.

Then one day Greg called and asked me if I wanted to visit him in Spokane. I was shocked and happy that he called. I had not known of any cities besides Seattle. He paid for my sister Agerey and me to fly to see his family. When we got there, he took us skiing. My sister loved it, but I hated it because I was not used to the snow. I only lasted fifteen minutes. I was taken to the lodge where I sat in front of the furnace for about half an hour, but my hands were still frozen so they took me into a little room and put me in bed. When I woke up I felt better. I saw my sister and Greg talking and drinking hot cocoa in the little room. All the way home they teased me, saying I was a city kid. I did not care what they thought. I never wanted to go skiing again. The next night we saw a movie called "Ernest Green," which was my choice and a lot more fun.

I graduated from Madison Middle School and went on to Nathan Hale High School. We lived in South Seattle and Nathan Hale was a 40 minute drive to the north on a school bus. My parents and I thought that it was a good school. I tried out for basketball and made the starting freshman team. Unfortunately, I was unable to play in some of the games because my grades were not good enough. I received some help and soon did better, so I was able to play in the Spring league. In my Sophomore year, school started to get more difficult in reading, writing, and math. I did not try out for the basketball team because I felt that my grades were more important. There was a tutoring program close to my home, and I went there every day to get help. In the winter, I noticed that I was not learning very much even though I was passing. I was starting to get discouraged.

A NEW CHAPTER BEGINS

Greg: When Aragaw and Agerey visited a second time in the Spring of 1999, I had just purchased a "dream home" for a ridiculously low price at a foreclosure auction, which is a story in itself, but does not belong here. The house seemed huge for a family of four, and I think it was a combination of the middle-class guilt mentioned above and a vision for Aragaw's education that led me to suggest that he come live with us in Spokane. He took me seriously and spoke with his parents about it, but both families ultimately decided it was not quite right. The purchase itself fell through weeks later, and most of us thought no more about it.

Except Aragaw. In January of the following year, he e-mailed us saying he was "not learning anything" at Nathan Hale and wanted to come to Spokane. The timing felt better. We had since succeeded in purchasing a home and were getting the hang of managing our own lives, our youngest child no longer an infant. Aragaw's parents had decided that they wanted their oldest son to do whatever it took to gain an education. Their home was healthy and full of love, but language and cultural barriers prevented them from fully comprehending his academic journey, much less advocating on his behalf with the school and the system in general. With a few tears, we received legal guardianship of Aragaw so that we could register him in a Spokane school, and Aragaw took his first road trip since the horseback ride four years earlier. We all knew that the guardianship arrangement was about education alone. Aragaw was a well-raised young man who made good choices and found good friends, and our posture was simply that he could stay with us as long as both he and his parents thought it was best. We all agreed that I would happily drive him home if he or his parents ever began to feel otherwise.

"Aaron" Alemayehu registered as a Mead High School freshman in January of 2000. He decided that he did not want his name butchered by well-meaning teachers and students alike, and despite my reservations I helped him dream up a new name the night before he started in his new school. Earlier in the essay, I hinted at complaints concerning the public social and educational systems that had "processed" Aragaw thus far. We registered Aragaw as a Freshman at Mead because he was born in November of 1984. Due to a customs mix-up when his family arrived, he and his sister both have January 1 birthdays, and Aragaw's birth year is incorrectly designated as 1983. This means that throughout his experience in the Seattle public school system, he not only fought language and cultural barriers, but all of his teachers assumed he was more than twenty months older than he actually was. One of the benefits for him of switching high schools was that he was with kids his age for the first time in his academic life.

This does not mean that he was not seriously behind his new peers in academic skills. Indeed, this fact helps illustrate the significance of his

recent accomplishments. But first a word about his support, because like most of us his achievements are not fully his own. I do not refer to our family here, but mainly to 10 to 12 Whitworth College students who served as volunteer tutors during his first year and a half in Spokane, each of them donating a couple of hours in the afternoon or evening for an entire semester resulting in Aragaw receiving eight to ten hours of tutoring each week.

Aragaw's present achievements are best communicated relative to his past. He was correct when he told us that he had not learned much in the Seattle school system. For this reason, Aragaw took grade-level mathematics courses at Mead while simultaneously memorizing his single-digit times tables for the first time. He took grade-level language arts courses while reading entire books for the first time as well. Aragaw has passed every course he has taken, and his improvement is obvious. Seeing what he has accomplished makes us believe that we just might have a college-bound student studying in our home. Aragaw assures us that this is so.

However, right in the midst of Aragaw's success, I surprised him with another career move. We have always aspired to return to Seattle and our roots if the right opportunity presented itself, and I will be taking a professorship there in the Fall of 2001. It looks as if Aragaw will also return and live with us, or his family, but he loves Mead and might choose to stay if another family steps forward to take him in and his parents approve. I do not know how this next step will play out, but we have all survived the other transitions and they are part of a story that makes me proud.

Aragaw: All this time, since I started school, I had been a grade ahead for my age. At this point in my life, I realized this and decided that I needed to re-evaluate where I was in my education. I e-mailed Greg. I still remember it like it was yesterday. I was in the library, sitting at the computer. I was telling him that I would really like to come and live with him. It would give me a chance to focus on my education in a new way. He e-mailed me back a few days later and said that if I was really serious about learning he would let me live with them and go to school at Mead High School as a second-semester ninth grader, which, based on my age, I was supposed to be. So, I finished the Fall semester at Nathan Hale and started the Spring semester at Mead. I told Greg that I knew that I was supposed to be in ninth grade. I knew all along, but I just never cared.

Before I came to Spokane, Greg came to Seattle to my high school and got all of my transcripts. Then my parents, Greg, and I went to court so his family could have legal guardianship of me while I was living with them. My parents thought that this was a great opportunity for me to focus on my schoolwork. Greg and I drove to Spokane that night in late January. It took about four hours. I was thinking about my family and was already getting homesick. I was nervous about everything that would be new. I thought of Spokane as a cowboy town. I thought of green grass and cows and barns. When I arrived there most of my thoughts were right. It was very spacious.

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There was less traffic than Seattle. I did not see as many minorities, just White people. I felt weird.

I have taken hard classes at Mead High School. Since Greg is so busy with his job, he organizes tutors each semester to help me with my homework. My hardest subject is math because I had never done math before I came to this country. Even though I was in math classes at Nathan Hale, I did not learn anything because I had no one to give me the help I needed. I started out in algebra at Mead. It was very hard at first, but I got used to it and it became easier. Math has always been the most important subject to me because it has been the biggest challenge.

Now I have another decision to make. I really like it here, but Greg is moving back to the city where my family lives. I want to stay here where the kids are nice, where I am getting a lot of help, and where I am really learning, but on some days I think it would be good for my little brother and sister if I were around again. And Greg would be there to support me, just like he was in the beginning. He has asked two families that he trusts to take me in, and my mother would agree if she knew he thought it was a good thing. So far, nothing has worked out, so I will probably return to Seattle. Still, I have made so much progress here. I am taking regular classes and I am on track for a high school diploma. I am not just getting "passed on" either. I am learning the material. Maybe college will work out after all.

CONCLUSION

The literature on mentoring disadvantaged young people contains many insights that make sense and square with my experience with Aragaw, but I will limit myself to five brief observations about mentoring. First, relational chemistry is undeniably critical. Even Big Brothers/Big Sisters, which screens volunteers rigorously (only one in four contacts results in a mentoring arrangement) cannot in all cases make mentoring matches work. Aragaw's resilience manifests itself in his ever-optimistic, winsome demeanor, and the fact that we basically like each other eases the emotional demands of our mentoring relationship.

Second, middle-class mentors of at-risk youth often feel cheated when our charges do not progress as much or as fast as we like in terms of grades, behavior, or any other measure. I continue to remind myself that Aragaw is a person that deserves unconditional support no matter how his life turns out, not an investment that must produce timely returns in order to retain value.

Third, advocacy does not equal care-taking. For example, Aragaw is just now discovering that abundant tutoring can produce dependence and actually inhibit learning if he adopts a passive role. In this respect, his abil-

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ity to solicit assistance is dangerous rather than advantageous when used manipulatively. Aragaw is slowly experiencing the reality that no person can educate another; education is inexorably personal and demands one's own engagement.

Fourth, the benefits of my mentoring Aragaw have increasingly become mutual. The adage "I receive more than I give" is surely cliché, but is in many cases true. Aragaw has grown to become a perceptive critic of my parenting, my ways of interacting with Marie, and my communication style. While I sometimes respond defensively, especially when tired, I have truly benefitted from his insights when I have had the courage to listen.

Finally, one cannot overstate the importance of engaging the parents when mentoring a young person. Both of our families have come to know and love one another over the course of this six-year relationship. While Aragaw's home life is healthy and we all interact productively despite the language barrier, I would encourage aspiring mentors to make efforts along this line regardless of the home situations of the youths they serve.

The extravagant calls for a million new mentors for vulnerable children advanced at Colin Powell's Mentoring Summit in 1997 have gone unfulfilled, but many solid programs have joined Big Brothers/Big Sisters in their efforts to provide such children with a caring adult friend. My hope is that, in this chapter, our two voices have provided readers with a "feel" for both sides of a mentoring relationship. While mentoring can never replace more comprehensive policy reform related to their physical and social health of children, it surely can play a critical role in the personal and educational lives. As the title of this essay suggests, I personally have found mentoring to be a wonderful complement to my work as an educational researcher. As a former youth minister and teacher who had gotten used to managing multiple relationships with children at the same time, I have grown increasingly fond of the BB/BS idea of one child for each adult. And, as is quite evident in this story, it is not simply the children that benefit.

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SECTION II

MENTORING WITH UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

Frances K. Kochan

In this section, our mentee population moves from the domain of childhood to the world of the university. These chapters remind us that although college students have moved beyond the P–12 setting, they still have some very powerful needs and that mentoring is an avenue for helping to meet those needs and fostering student success. These chapters provide a wonderful blend of the organizational and human aspects of mentoring and the institutional and personal responsibilities inherent in developing and engaging in the mentoring process.

STUDENT PERCEPTIONS OF THE MENTORING RELATIONSHIP IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Sandra Harris initiates the examination of mentoring in higher education through her research into university students' perceptions of the process. An interesting dimension of her findings is the high degree of agreement among students about their desire and need for a mentor, particularly as they begin their academic careers. Her findings also indicate that few of these students receive the mentoring they desire. Dr. Harris' recommendations for developing university mentoring programs are both practical and innovative and should be helpful to those seeking to establish such programs.

PROGRAMMATIC ELEMENTS THAT ENHANCE THE MENTORING RELATIONSHIP

Toni and David Campbell have conducted an in-depth analysis of the elements that enhanced and hindered the success of a university-wide mentoring program in a large metropolitan California university. The program's goals center on creating a welcoming climate for all students in order to support and facilitate their socialization into the culture and assure their academic success. The authors' thorough analysis provides powerful insights and practical ideas on how to structure a successful program of this type and how to prepare both students and faculty members for their roles. An intriguing aspect of their work is the differences in perceptions and goals between students and faculty members relative to their mentoring relationships.

MENTORING ASPIRING SCHOOL LEADERS IN SCHOLARLY STUDENTS WRITING THROUGH CASE STUDIES OF DIVERSITY

Carol Mullen's chapter describes a multi-level approach to mentoring in her educational leadership graduate classes in which she mentors her students and engages them in mentoring one another. Students share their case study research on diversity and discuss implications for educational leaders. Concurrently, Dr. Mullen uses a model for writing that fosters students' abilities to prepare manuscripts for publication and to mentor one another in this endeavor. The processes and interactions shared should be of value to others as they consider how to prepare educational leaders to face the challenges they will encounter and how to include mentoring relationships in higher education classrooms.

JOINT REFLECTIONS ON MENTORING: CREATING A LEGACY OF CARE

Cynthia Reed, Audrey Phillips, Tasha Parish, and Lucinda "Cindy" Shaw conclude this section by sharing their insights into their co-mentoring relationships. This chapter tells a unique story of mentoring relationships that cross traditional positional lines between faculty, graduate students, and undergraduate students as they work together in varied pairings for differing purposes. Their voices tell of the joy of mentoring as a gift they give to one another that is forming a legacy of care for themselves and future generations.

Their chapter helps focus an issue of importance that permeates all of the chapters in this section-that higher education must remember the human aspects of learning and create environments that nourish not only the intellect but the spirit of all who are a part of that domain.

CHAPTER 5

STUDENT PERCEPTIONS OF THE MENTORING RELATIONSHIP IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Sandra M. Harris

During the 11 years that I have been teaching in adult education, I have come to realize that this position brings with it more roles and responsibilities than I first imagined. While I was prepared, at least partly, to face the specific duties associated with classroom teaching, such as lesson preparation, testing, and grading, I was not fully prepared for the peripheral responsibilities that accompany this job. Among the responsibilities that I had not anticipated is that my occupation places me in a position where I am viewed as both a role model and a mentor. While I can count the number of role models and mentors that I have personally encountered in my own career, in my naivety, I had not considered myself as fulfilling those roles for others. I was especially perplexed when one of my best friends, whom I consider a peer and confidant, referred to me as a role model. During the past academic term, three other individuals, whom I also consider peers, referred to me as their mentor. I was not prepared for these revelations . . . and in some ways, I felt unworthy of such distinctions from people I consider close to me in so many ways.

In the days following these statements by my friends, I wondered how it was that they came to view me as a role mode or a mentor. In my search for an answer, I pondered many times upon the definitions of role model and mentor. Through the varying definitions I conjured up, I found it easy to accept the notion of being a role model because my job places me in a

position in which others can clearly see my accomplishments. However, I found the construction of an image of myself as a mentor to be rather perplexing. As I continued to consider the disconnect between my friends' views of me and my views of myself, it occurred to me that I was attempting to understand the concept of a mentor from someone else's point of view. I then realized that no matter how introspective I attempted to be, I would not grasp the perspectives of my friends by looking inward to myself . . . rather I needed to ask them about their perceptions of mentoring relationships. It also occurred to me that the success of a mentoring relationship was, for the most part, dependent upon the views and expectations of the person being mentored. This understanding led me to an investigation into students' perceptions of what constitutes a mentor and a successful mentoring relationship. I initiated my search by scanning the literature to learn what other researchers had discovered about mentoring relationships.

REVIEWING THE LITERATURE

Mentoring is a practice that is as old as humankind. Formal (or planned) mentoring dates back to Greek mythology when Athena, "the goddess of wisdom and skill, came to earth and took the form of a man, Mentor, to assist a young man facing perceived difficulties" (Bruce, 1995, p. 139). Since then, formal mentoring practices have been adopted in a number of settings.

Because of the multiple settings in which mentoring is used, there is no single, unifying, operational definition of the process (Wilde & Shau, 1991). Yet, in spite of the varying definitions, there is a constant theme that links them all: the notion of mentoring being a process in which a more experienced person facilitates the development of a less experienced person. This theme is readily found in Haney's (1997) definition which posits mentoring as a "relationship between an experienced and less experienced person in which the mentor provides guidance, advice, support, and feedback to the protégé" (p. 211). This theme is also echoed by Bierema (1996) who defined mentoring as "the process by which experienced individuals facilitate the assimilation of newcomers into an organizational or corporate climate" (p. 145).

Although there is no standard definition of mentoring, much research has been conducted to study the general benefits of mentoring as it occurs in the educational setting. For example, Galbraith and Cohen (1995) found that mentoring can help ease the culture shock that first-generation college students face as they transition into higher education. Gunn (1995) associated mentoring with factors such as career development, individual growth, and expanded opportunities. Others report that as a pro-

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cess, mentoring "facilitates goal accomplishment, provides emotional and psychological support, assists with professional development, and offers role modeling" (Barker & Pitts, 1997, p. 221). Mentoring has also been associated with general outcomes such as psychological support and encouragement (Bruce, 1995) as well as career guidance and development (Bruce, 1995; Olian, Carroll, Giannantonia, & Feren, 1988; Wilde & Schau, 1991).

A number of other studies have focused on the specific benefits of mentoring in higher education. At the graduate level, LeCluyse, Tollefson, and Borgers (1985) found a positive relationship between mentoring and the rate of involvement in professional activities for women graduate students. Other researchers (Cronan-Hillix, Gensheimer, Cronan-Hillix & Davidson, 1986) indicated that psychology graduate students who reported having a mentor, evidenced higher grades, engaged in more scholarly research activities, and produced more publications than students who lacked mentors. Additionally, Merriam and Thomas (1986) presented data from interviews in which 19 out of 20 community college presidents attributed part of their success to having had a mentoring relationship in graduate school. The benefits of mentoring have also been associated with certain measures of success at the undergraduate level. For example, Ross-Thomas and Bryant (1994) reported the success of a community-mentoring program that increased the retention rate and decreased the probation rate of undergraduate students at a southern university.

In studying the effectiveness of mentoring, one must take into account the mentor's role in the process and how that role affects the outcomes of mentoring. In a general sense, "A mentor's role is to promote intentional learning. That includes developing people's capabilities through instructing, coaching, modeling, advising, as well as providing stretching experiences" (Kaye & Jacobsen, 1996, p. 44). Within the framework of this definition, one will find, that in the educational setting, the mentor assumes multiple roles, which tend to be clustered into three general categories: (a) personal support, (b) professional development, and (c) role modeling (Jacobi, 1991). The category of personal support includes behaviors such as offering encouragement, supplying emotional sustenance, and providing psychological support such as building self-awareness, self-esteem, and self-respect (Bruce, 1995; Haring, 1999). The category, professional development, includes career related activities such as teaching, coaching, and providing academic and professional advice, as well as sharing knowledge and experience (Haring, 1999; Moss & Debres, 1999). In the context of role modeling, mentors provide visual images of individuals who have successfully completed the journey through higher education. These visual images promote a sense of empowerment and capability in those being mentored (Bruce, 1995; Jacobi, 1991).

While much of the literature has focused on the mentor's role in the process, Bruce (1995) articulated some of the mentee's responsibilities.

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She concluded that among other things, mentees should be willing to seek advice and they should actively seek mentoring relationships. She further advocated that mentees should be willing to have multiple mentors in order to obtain varied perspectives on issues. In addition, mentees must be willing to accept good advice and refuse bad advice. Bruce further advocated that mentees should be open to using multiple modes of communication with a mentor, including the use of the telephone, email, and the Internet.

Frequently research on mentoring relationships has focused on professionals and their protégés. Less research has examined the effects of peer mentoring in the educational setting. In one study, Barker and Pitts (1997) examined the benefits of having graduate students serve as mentors for undergraduate business students. At the end of the study, both the undergraduate and graduate students reported positive outcomes from the mentoring experience. Specifically, the graduate students reported that they gained a new understanding of and a greater appreciation for the complexity and reciprocity that is a fundamental part of mentoring relationships.

In another study, Holm and Dynak (1994) reported results of a program that paired university students with a diverse group of high school students. When interviewing the participants at the end of the study, "mentors saw themselves as role models with regard to academic achievement and social life. Some provided career guidance . . . [protégés] found out the requirements for entering college and receiving scholarships" (p. 437). In addition, the mentors felt that their mentoring experience better prepared them for their future roles as teachers. Those who were mentored felt as though they had established a connection to someone who would listen to them and provide them with encouragement and support.

Though the positive effects of mentoring have been well documented, mentoring is relatively rare among undergraduate students. Jacobi (1990) found that 67 percent of undergraduate students in a West Coast university expressed difficulties in locating a mentor or role model. While mentoring at the undergraduate level is somewhat rare, many suppose that mentoring is more prevalent at the graduate level. However, data suggest that the prevalence of mentoring at the graduate level is a function of factors such as the institution, the time in which the data are gathered, and even the characteristicss of the individual students (Jacobi, 1991). For example, LeCluyse, Tollefson, and Borgers (1985) found that 76 percent of female undergraduates in a midwestern university college of education had mentors. In contrast, Jacobi's (1990) research at a large West Coast university revealed that 56 percent of the graduate students reported finding a mentor as being a moderate to major problem.

While the effectiveness of mentoring relationships in higher education is well documented, the prevalence of such relationships is unknown. After compiling a literature review of mentoring in higher education, Jacobi

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(1991) identified the need for studies to address the rate of occurrence of mentoring in higher education. In addition, Wilde and Schau (1991) proposed that because much of the focus on mentoring relationships has been from the perspective of mentors, additional research is needed to examine the mentoring relationship from the mentee's perspective.

With the suggestions of Jacobi (1991) and Wilde and Schau (1991) in mind, I decided to address the following issues:

- the prevalence of mentors in higher education,
- the desire for mentoring relationships among students in higher education, and
- the characteristics of the mentoring relationship as perceived by college students.

EXAMINING THE PREVALENCE OF AND DESIRE FOR MENTORS

To address the first two issues, data were gathered from 659 students from two southeastern universities. College 1 was a large, traditional, land-grant university. College 2 was a smaller college that was tailored to the needs of working individuals. By definition, College 2 was considered a nontraditional university. The data were collected through the use of the Factors Influencing Pursuit of Higher Education (FIPHE) Questionnaire (Harris, in press). The questionnaire consists of 92 items that address the factors that motivate individuals to pursue higher education. The demographic section of the questionnaire contains four items that pertain to the presence of and desire for mentors. Two questions address the presence of a graduate student mentor and a faculty mentor, respectively. Two questions address the desire for a graduate student mentor and a faculty mentor, respectively. Only the results from the four questions pertaining to mentors are presented in this chapter.

A cross tabulation procedure revealed significant differences between the two samples on all of the measured demographic variables. Concerning age, 4 percent of the students at the traditional university and 26 percent of the students at the nontraditional university were 26 years of age or older. Regarding race, 90 percent of traditional students and 56 percent of the nontraditional students were Caucasian. While only 2 percent of the traditional students reported themselves to be self-financed, 29 percent of the nontraditional students reported themselves as the primary source of financial aid. Five per cent of the traditional students and 60 percent of the nontraditional students indicated that they worked more than thirty hours per week.

Presence of Mentors

There was no significant difference between the response rates for students at the two colleges relative to having a mentor. Of the total respondents for each college, only 10 percent of the traditional students and 20 percent of the nontraditional students reported having a graduate student mentor. When looking at the results within each college, freshmen at both colleges were more likely than any other group to report having a graduate student mentor. The rate of yes responses for freshmen was 17 percent for traditional students and 23 percent for nontraditional students.

In contrast, there was a significant difference in the rate of responses indicating the presence of a faculty mentor yet in both settings the percentages were still low. The overall response rate was 21 percent for the traditional students versus 16 percent for the non-traditional students. A larger percentage of seniors at the traditional college reported having faculty mentors than those at the non-traditional college. The rate of yes responses for the presence of a faculty member for seniors at the traditional college was 30 percent, versus 14 percent for the nontraditional students. Together, the results from these two items support research that shows that mentoring in higher education, whether at the graduate or undergraduate level, is a relatively rare occurrence (Jacobi, 1990; Johnson, 1989).

Desire for a Mentor

There was no significant difference in the frequency of yes responses between the two colleges on the issue of the presence of a mentor. The results revealed that overall, traditional students were less likely than nontraditional students to report having a desire for a graduate student mentor (48 percent versus 55 percent respectively). Within both colleges, seniors and sophomores were the least likely to express a desire for a graduate student mentor. The overall frequencies of yes responses to the desire for a mentor who was a faculty member was roughly the same at both colleges and was higher than the rate of those students who wanted a graduate student to mentor them (62 percent versus 61 percent, respectively). Interestingly, juniors at each college had a higher rate of yes responses to this item than did their senior counterparts.

STUDENT PERCEPTIONS OF THE MENTORING RELATIONSHIPS

To examine the issue of student perceptions of mentoring relationships, I developed the Survey of Student Perceptions of Mentoring Relationships (SSPMR). Items in the survey were based on literature which addressed

issues such as the benefits of mentoring relationships (Galbraith & Cohen, 1995; Gunn, 1995; Jacobi, 1991), the role of mentors in mentoring relationships (Bruce, 1995; Haring, 1999; Moss & Debres, 1999), and the role of mentees in mentoring relationships (Bruce, 1995). The survey consisted of 14 multiple choice and 5 open-ended items.

Scoring for the survey was accomplished in two phases. In phase one, a frequency count was made for each option of the multiple-choice items. In phase two, the open-ended items were scored in a three-part process. First, the researcher entered all responses into a database. Next, a content analysis was conducted to determine underlying or unifying themes in the responses. After the content analysis, the researcher coded the responses into categories to aid in the interpretation of the results.

Participants in the second study were 43 psychology majors from a southeastern university. The majority of the participants were juniors and seniors. Seventy-eight per cent of the respondents were female. Twenty-six percent of the respondents were in the 21–26 year age range, 9 percent were in the 26-30 year category, 9 percent were in the 30–35 year category, and 28 percent fit into the over 36 category. On the variable of ethnicity, the sample was evenly balanced between Whites and Blacks ($n = 21$ and $n = 22$, respectively).

MENTORING RELATIONSHIPS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Of the 43 responses to the item which asked about the presence of a mentor in the educational setting, 16 respondents indicated that they currently had a mentor. Of those respondents, 69 percent indicated that their current mentoring relationship was informal, and that it was based on their personal contact with their mentor rather than being sanctioned by the university. Of the respondents who had mentors, 9 (56 percent) indicated that the relationship had lasted for two years or more. The remainder indicated that their relationship had been in effect for one year or less.

Fifteen students (35 percent) responded that they had previously had a mentor. Of these, 73 percent indicated that the relationships had been established on an informal basis. Sixty-seven percent of the respondents stated that the relationship had lasted for two years or more. The remaining students indicated that the relationships lasted one year or less.

Personal Traits of the Mentor

Gender

Nineteen percent of the 43 respondents indicated a preference for mentors of the same gender and 81 percent of the respondents indicated

that they had no preference. Regarding this issue, one student commented, "This is the ideal, of course. (Not to have to consider gender) But in today's world, probably same gender is advisable [sic]." This comment reflects the concern of other researchers who discussed the potential problems that could occur in cross-gender mentoring dyads (Bruce, 1995).

Ethnicity

On the issue of ethnicity, 47 percent of the 43 respondents indicated they had no preference, 42 percent indicated a preference for someone of the same ethnicity, and 12 percent indicated a preference for someone of a different ethnicity. In response to the preference for someone of a different ethnicity, one student commented "(this) provides insight you might not get otherwise."

Experience

The factor rated as the most important one when selecting a mentor was experience. Twenty-one percent of the respondents indicated this as a preference. Thirty percent had no preference related to experience. A few respondents indicated a preference for a graduate student mentor (14 percent), and the lowest rate of preference was for a junior faculty member (6 percent). These findings suggests that when structuring formal mentoring programs, the mentee's perception of the mentor's experience may be a more important consideration than are the issues of gender and ethnicity.

Communicating with the Mentor

Preferred Method of Communication

When asked to state their preferred method of communicating with a mentor, 45 percent of the respondents ($n = 19$) indicated a preference for face- to-face encounters, 21 percent chose any mode, and 33 percent indicated a preference for a combination of face-to-face, telephone, and email. In the results of the follow-up, open-ended question asking which method of communication was the most beneficial, 82 percent of the 31 responses selected face-to-face encounters. To the formal item that asked respondents to explain why they felt this method was most beneficial, 32 percent of the respondents indicted that it was more personal, 19 percent indicated it was most beneficial because of the nonverbal feedback, and 16 percent of the comments reflected the importance of both verbal and nonverbal feedback. Additional comments related to getting undivided attention (14 percent), and greater interaction (10 percent). Ten percent of the comments could not be placed in any category.

Frequency of Interaction

Regarding the amount of time a mentor should spend with a protégé, 33 percent of the respondents indicated that the time should be based on the protégé's needs, 33 percent thought the time should be two hours or more per week, and 35 percent believed that the time should be less than one hour per week. In response to a question about being a mentor, 86 percent of the respondents indicated that they would be willing to mentor a freshman student.

CHARACTERISTICS OF MENTORING RELATIONSHIPS

Comments related to characteristics of mentoring relationships fell into four areas: benefits, mentors' role, mentees' role, and when a mentor is most needed. These are described in more detail in the following paragraph.

Benefits of Mentoring

There were 62 comments related to the benefits of mentoring. The five most frequently occurring benefits were encouragement, guidance, shared experiences, having a role model, and communication with another person. These responses support findings that indicate that the benefits of mentoring fall into the general categories of psychosocial support, career guidance, and development (Bruce, 1995; Olian, Carroll, Giannantonia, Feren 1988; Wilde & Schau, 1991). Table 1 presents a synopsis of some of the written responses to this item.

Mentor's Role

A total of 85 responses were recorded for this item. The five most frequently occurring responses were guidance, encouragement, advising, teaching, and listening. The results support other findings which suggested that the roles fulfilled by mentors fall into the general categories of personal support, professional development, and role modeling (Bruce, 1995; Haring, 1999; Jacobi, 1991; Moss & Debres, 1999). Table 2 presents a synopsis of some of the written responses to this item.

TABLE 1
Comments Regarding the Benefits of Mentoring Relationships

- The ability for me to learn, willingly, in a formal setting.
- Just someone to be able to share in the joy of your ability to succeed.
- The hands on experience. A mentor has insights they can share based on their experience.
- Someone to share your thoughts with. A person that maybe has had the same experiences as you.
- I feel a mentor is someone you look up to, like, etc. My mentor is and needs to be smart, intelligent, trusting, advice giving, and a good listener.
- Having someone you can look up to, having someone you trust, and having someone to provide you with encouragement.
- This person can lead me into the right direction if I were going astray. They could give me advice from the smallest of matters to the most complex.
- The ability to talk with someone and see that someone can make a difference in my life . . . and knowing I will be able to reach my goals.
- Having respect for each other and the relationship by encouraging and setting examples and also by teaching each other.
- I have someone that has already been through school and can keep me from making bad decisions. She also pushes me when I feel like giving up.
- The relationship can possibly render satisfaction for both parties. Mentor and mentee share common beliefs and concepts. Procedures, and personality. The mentor guides the mentee and this forms a positive transcendence that is experienced by both.

TABLE 2
Comments Regarding the Mentor's Role in Mentoring Relationships

- To guide, give advice and moral support.
- Someone to keep you focused on the goal.
- It goes beyond teaching [they] take a personal interest in the individual.
- The mentor should make you feel at ease with him/her at all times.
- To lead you into the right direction and give advice from his past experience.
- To help me make decisions and give me that little extra support when I need it.
- To encourage the student . . . also guide, support, and most of all listen to the student.
- A mentor's role is that of a teacher . . . by sharing insights and by acting as role models.
- To keep an individual straight. I mean on the right track about life, work, and education.
- To listen and hear the mentee's opinions. Be open-minded and levy instruction when necessary.
- To be able to guide someone in the right direction, listen to that person, talk to that person, and be able to solve problems.
- To give advice and guide you in your professional development. A mentor is to be a role model in whatever setting may it be academic, professional, or social.

TABLE 3
Comments Regarding the Mentee's Role in Mentoring Relationships

- To listen, learn, and ask questions.
- To gain knowledge from their mentor.
- To take the advice and use to his best ability
- To question, look for right answers, and have a sense of awareness.
- To be open-minded. To take suggestions. To stay in touch with the mentor.
- To return moral support and show appreciation for the help the mentor provides.
- Respect how much time that he/she may impose on another individual's life.
- To listen to the mentor's advice and take it into consideration when making your decision.
- The mentee is a student acting as a sponge absorbing the knowledge a mentor has to share.
- Be open-minded and put pride aside. This is the only idea that can stunt the relationship. Be attentive and energetic.
- To go to the mentor with questions. To talk to the mentor about how school is going and the progress he or she is making.
- Being completely open with the mentor. Not being afraid to ask questions about certain aspects even if you feel you should know the answer.

Mentee's Role

A total of 65 open-ended comments were given in response to this item. The top four responses were listening, questioning, following advice, and accepting suggestions. Learning and openness tied for fifth place. In general, the roles identified by the respondents were consistent with the roles prescribed by Bruce (1995). Table 3 presents a synopsis of some of the written responses to this item.

When a Mentor Is Most Needed

Of the 39 responses to the item that addressed the respondent's perception of the point in a person's academic career for which the support of a mentor would be most beneficial, 41 percent indicated that the beginning was most important. Table 4 presents a synopsis of some of the written responses to this item.

TABLE 4
Comments Regarding the Mentor's Role in Mentoring Relationships

- At the lower grade, K–6. It is the foundation for all future education.
- The mentor is most helpful in the beginning, to you lead toward the career that best suits you and you don't waste time in areas that are unnecessary.
- In the beginning-that is when the person is most vunable [sic]. If this person had someone there to encourage them at the very beginning, they are likely to keep going.
- The last two years because that is when it is most stressful . . . so the mentor will be able to step in and guide them accordingly.
- Before you start school, during, and ending an academic career. To give you the willpower to continue because of all of life's distractions: such as kids, work, and recreation.
- There are many times when an individual gets frustrated and wants to give up. The mentor is needed there to continue to encourage the individual.
- The mentor is most important during the entire academic career because I believe guidance and encouragement is always needed.
- Questions arise as to what jobs are available, what type of advanced degrees for certain jobs, and how to gain experience without a degree.
- I don't think there is one point where a mentor can be more helpful than another. Rather, I feel they can offer insights throughout an academic career that are important. At the start the insights might be more general (i.e. study skills) and later on more specific in offering detailed advice on how to deal with career choices.
- I believe the presence of a mentor in a student's life can never be too early. I feel that a student should have a mentor no later than junior high school. Students need help determining their interests and to understand that present performance directly impacts future aspirations.
- In the beginning because the work is going to need some adjustment. At the end because an individual is tired and feels as if they can't go anymore.
- I feel this is that graduate school only point in time when the mentee is matured, motivated, and educated to the point of accepting the mentor's relationship and guidance.
- A mentor is most helpful when there is a need for him/her. I think this because some of us do not always need a mentor, e.g. myself until I met my mentor.

LESSONS LEARNED

The results reveal that overall, the traditional and nontraditional students in this study had similar experiences in their access to and desire for mentors in the college environment. However, the high percentage of students, both traditional and non-traditional who indicated that they lack either a graduate student mentor (90 percent and 80 percent respectively) or a fac-

ulty mentor (77 percent and 84 percent, respectively) reveals that colleges and universities are failing to provide a key element that contributes to the success of their students: mentoring relationships. Since mentoring has been associated with increased retention and decreased probation rates (Ross-Thomas & Bryant, 1994), mentoring programs could be a valuable means of promoting student retention.

Past research suggests that peer mentoring is also an effective strategy for increasing student retention (Barker & Pitts, 1997; Holm & Dynak, 1994). Considering that 85 percent of the respondents from Study 2 indicated their willingness to mentor a freshman student, and in view of the research that has shown the positive effects of peer mentoring, universities may also be overlooking students as potential resources for establishing mentoring relationships. In fostering mentoring alliances between upper and lower classmen, two-way learning can occur. Lower classmen can learn to navigate the course of higher education, and upper classmen can have the opportunity to experience the reciprocal nature of mentoring relationships (Barker & Pitts, 1997). Implementing peer-mentoring programs would be a step toward fostering the intentional learning proposed by Kaye and Jacobsen (1996).

Comments to the open-ended items further support the contention that mentoring is a complex process. The comments also indicate that the outcomes of mentoring are dependent upon the context and needs of the mentee. Commonality and the willingness to communicate between and among the mentor and mentee appears to have the greatest potential to impact the level of satisfaction of a mentoring relationship. In informal mentoring, individuals tend to choose others with whom they are able to establish a personal connection. However, in formal structuring situations, it may be helpful for program administrators to consider surveying student needs and preferences before assigning a mentor (Haring, 1999).

As indicated by the respondents' comments regarding their perceptions of the mentor's role in mentoring relationships it is imperative that the mentor be able to show a personal interest in and concern for the person being mentored (Wilde & Schau, 1991). It is within this interest that the benefits of mutuality, trust, and respect are harvested. The student comments also reflect Jacobi's (1991) contention that mentoring relationships are personal in nature and require direct interaction, time, and care.

Data from the current research support the notion that mentoring is a complex process because it is approached from such varying perspectives. Consequently, it would be difficult to compile a definition that would apply universally to all mentoring dyads. Rather than struggle to find a single definition for mentoring, perhaps it is time to accept the fact that mentoring is a multifaceted process whose outcomes depend on a number of variables. "No one strategy can solve problems and best enhance mentoring. . . Intentional steps must be taken to examine expected outcomes of mentoring relationships and evaluate long-term effects" (Bruce, 1995).

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FOCUS ON THE FUTURE

Though the data presented in this chapter have been instrumental in highlighting characteristics of the mentoring relationship as perceived by students, more research needs to be done in this area. One factor that underlies the need for additional research is the unique characteristics of the respondents in the second study, namely that they were nontraditional students who were junior and senior psychology majors. Previous research has indicated that a mentee's needs will vary with characteristics such as age, gender, and class status (Moss & Debres, 1999; Olian, et al., 1988). As such, a comparison survey of freshmen or graduate students may generate very different results. Therefore, additional research using a cross-section of students is needed to further investigate the mentoring relationship as perceived by those in need of mentors.

Additional research should also be conducted to further develop and validate the SSPMR. This instrument could be useful in establishing formal mentoring programs. Program administrators could use the instrument to help both mentors and mentees understand the nature of the mentoring relationships. The instrument could help program participants understand what is expected of them in mentoring programs, and it could help them clarify their own personal expectations of mentoring relationships. In turn, these shared expectations could help set the foundation for successful mentoring outcomes.

The research presented in this chapter has provided information that will be useful in a future mentoring program that I intend to develop. In the near future, I will be working to implement a peer-tutoring program at my institution that will be designed to encourage upper level college students to mentor lower level students.

The SSPMR will be used to help participants outline their expectations of the process. The instrument will allow me to utilize the preferences of participants to more effectively pair the mentoring dyads. Over the course of the term, mentors will be required to spend at least one hour per week with their protégés. This time requirement will be stipulated because data introduced in this chapter revealed that most students thought that one hour per week is a sufficient amount of time for the mentoring relationship to be effective. For the first few weeks, the contact will be face-to-face to foster an initial acquaintance period for the mentoring dyads. Later in the term, the method of contact will be left to the discretion of the mentor and mentee.

As part of the mentoring program, both mentors and mentees will be required to keep a journal of their contacts. They will be asked to note the date of the contact, the time, the location, and the duration. They will also indicate the general nature of the meeting and their general impressions of the outcome of each contact. At the end of the term, each participant

will be required to write a reflective paper on the mentoring process. They will be asked to comment on their overall impression of the relationship, as well as to take note of lessons learned, successes, failures, and suggestions for improvements. The journals will then be analyzed and synthesized into an end of term report.

While the initial mentoring program will occur over the course of one academic term, the intent of the program will be to foster ongoing mentoring relationships. I intend to conduct a longitudinal study of the participants who take part in the program. I will interview them at least once a year to determine the impact of the mentoring program on their academic and personal lives. It will be through the longitudinal studies that I will be able to better determine the mentees' and the mentors' perceptions of what constitutes or contributes to a successful mentoring relationship.

I believe that part of our responsibility to our students involves facilitating their success. It appears that mentoring can be a powerful avenue for doing so. Therefore, I encourage others to engage in similar program development initiatives to assist their students and to aid in building a broader research base on the topics dealt with, in this chapter. I believe such endeavors will enrich our field and the lives of the students we serve.

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CHAPTER 6

PROGRAMMATIC ELEMENTS THAT ENHANCE THE MENTORING RELATIONSHIP

Toni A. Campbell and David E. Campbell

Over the past several decades, American universities have made a concerted effort to create campus climates that contribute to the retention of students, particularly those new to the campus. One type of strategy that has become particularly popular in this realm is mentoring programs in which faculty members serve as mentors to undergraduate students. In an effort to personalize institutions of higher education and to encourage students' sense of connectedness, a number of colleges have developed this type of mentoring program. The structure of the mentoring program takes on a variety of forms. In some cases, fairly formal programs are administered in which students are assigned to mentors (e.g., see Campbell & Campbell, 1997). In others, students and mentors develop relationships "naturally," with no formal structure or support from the administration (Dietz & Dettlaff, 1997).

In this chapter, we discuss the Faculty Mentor Program (FMP) at San José State University, a large metropolitan university in California with approximately 21,000 students, 790 full-time faculty and 900 part-time faculty. This university-wide program has been serving students on campus since the mid-eighties. Over the last fifteen years, the program has undergone important structural changes as we have refined our approach to mentoring and identified those elements of the program that are helpful to the mentors and students in the work they do together. In this chapter,

we will present a case study of the program, focusing briefly on the underlying goal of the Faculty Mentor Program, then identifying those elements of the program that we believe are critical to its success or the success of similar programs.

GOALS OF THE PROGRAM

The primary goal of the FMP at San José State University is to enhance both the retention and the graduation rates of students newly admitted to the university. The FMP has been designed to facilitate personal contacts and the development of on-going relationships between university faculty and first-time freshmen or newly transferred students from community colleges. The program was originally designed to target under-represented minorities, but in recent years has been expanded to embrace the full student body. The purpose of the contacts between the faculty and students is to assist the students in adapting to university life and expectations so that they can attain their academic goals and graduate. The program objectives are to:

- contribute to the creation of a campus climate where all students are accepted, supported, and encouraged to achieve academically;
- integrate the FMP into a campus-wide retention plan;
- establish a pattern of personal contacts between faculty and students so that students become aware of learning opportunities and strategies for educational progress; and
- create a better understanding among students and faculty of the cultural diversity of the San José State University community.

The primary efforts of the FMP are focused on recruiting students into the program, putting them in direct contact with their mentor, and then providing a variety of services to support the relationship. These efforts begin in the first days of the fall semester. Student applicants are paired as closely as possible with volunteer mentors who have academic backgrounds that match what the students have listed as their probable majors. We ask mentors to contact the students assigned to them as soon after classes begin as possible and to make an appointment to meet face-to-face. At that first meeting mentors are encouraged to discuss the ways they would be willing to contribute to the mentoring relationship (e.g., guidance, tutoring, social meetings, etc.). In this way, the mentor provides some structure to the early development of the relationship and helps to support this joint work.

In addition to having mentors delineate what they are willing to do, we also encourage the students to think about what they want from a mentor-

ing relationship. Some students want a mentor who is a sounding board for ideas or concerns. Others prefer a mentor who provides encouragement or direction. Often the students want someone who can help them think through ways to accomplish their goals. Mentors also help students to do such things as edit class papers, acquire study skills, or gain an understanding of how the library is organized. Mentors and students jointly define their goals and develop a plan for working together throughout the academic year.

Mentors and students work out individual schedules for accomplishing their goals, but mentors are asked to meet with each student assigned to them at least three times each semester. Although most of these meetings occur in person, some mentors have used the telephone and, more recently, email to good effect in maintaining contact with their students. Mentors are asked to maintain a log of their contacts with student mentees. Each semester, these logs are received in the FMP office and are used to monitor the level and the types of contacts mentors and students experience. Such information contributes to planning workshops and related services that will assist mentors in their work with students.

The FMP office serves as a resource and referral site, primarily in response to questions raised by mentors. For example, a common need mentors experience is for individualized assistance or coaching in working through issues that arise in mentoring sessions. Another common request throughout the year is from students and mentors who want specific information about how to access university services.

ELEMENTS OF THE PROGRAM THAT MAKE A DIFFERENCE

We believe that the structural elements and specific features of a mentoring program can be critical to program success. Simply assigning mentees to mentors is not enough. Issues such as mentor load, incentives for active participation, and support for difficult relationships must be considered. We have found five structural characteristics to be particularly important in supporting the smooth functioning of our program: ratio of students to mentor; using the application process to shape programmatic decisions; acknowledging mentors' services; providing incentives; and conducting mentee workshops.

Ratio of Students to Mentor

Each year about 400 students apply to participate in the FMP program. Making the assignments of these students to mentors is a tedious task, but

one from which we have learned some important lessons. Perhaps the most important has been that the number of students assigned to each mentor is crucial. Initially, the view was that in order to run an efficient program, ten students would be assigned to each faculty volunteer. From a management perspective, a one-to-ten ratio made sense as a workable span of control. Support for the relatively few faculty involved would be straightforward; each of the mentors would become well known to the program director and an elite cadre of faculty mentors was expected to emerge. In short, restricting the number of mentors by assigning relatively large numbers of students to each professor was a management decision focused on logistics, not outcomes or human considerations.

The ten-to-one approach produced two distinct problems. First, few faculty applied to serve as mentors each year, and very few stayed with the program for more than one year. The amount of contact time required to meet individually with ten different students, at least some of whom were not majoring in the mentor's discipline, was daunting. The other problem with the high student-to-mentor ratio was that the contact between students and their mentors was often cursory. Mentors simply did not have sufficient time to develop personal relationships with all the students assigned to them while simultaneously meeting all the other responsibilities of a university professor. Appointments tended to be difficult to make, the meetings were brief, and opportunities for informal contact were infrequent. For many of the students, the program was not particularly helpful and was clearly a less than satisfying experience.

Eight years ago we changed the student-to-mentor ratio from ten-to-one to allowing the mentor to determine the number of mentees they would work with, with the maximum number of 4. Within three months of announcing the change, the number of mentors who volunteered for the program jumped from about 15 to over 100. In the years since making that single alteration in program structure, we have averaged around 170 volunteer mentors per year. As significant as the sheer number of volunteers has been, so has the percentage that "re-enlist" annually. On average, about 40 percent of the mentors return to the program each year. There is a large number who volunteer for two or three years, take a break of a year or two, and then return to serve once again in the program.

Using the Applications Process to Shape Programmatic Decisions

Students and faculty members complete application forms to participate in the FMP program. We use these applications not only to pair mentors with mentees, but to help them and us shape the program for that year. Both the mentor and student applications offer information useful beyond sim-

ply informing the mentor/mentee pair about each other. Information in the applications is critical to the development of the program. To a great extent, the content of these forms provides direction in the selection of workshop topics, services to provide, and the materials we distribute to participants.

The Student's Application

Each summer, invitations to participate in the FMP are mailed to about 3000 students. These students are all individuals who will be attending the university for the first time, either as community college transfers or as freshmen. We target students who have attended an on-campus orientation program or who are involved with one of the many specialized recruitment programs at the university (e.g., "Teachers in Preparation," a program designed to identify and assist students in community colleges who have indicated an interest in earning a teaching credential when they transfer to the university). Students receive a brochure describing the program and an application form to return if they are interested in joining. The application is intended to do more than simply provide basic descriptive data about students. Our goal is to provide mentors with information that will have immediate value in helping them to relate to their mentees.

The application form asks students to provide demographic data (birth date, gender, ethnicity, major, class level) and identifying information (e.g., address, email, phone number, social security number). They are then asked to tell us about themselves, particularly with regard to goals, preferred activities, hobbies, and career interests. Usually the students indicate what they want to accomplish at the university then go on to describe how they enjoy spending their free time. For example, one applicant recently wrote, "My goal for college is to succeed at this level and become a language arts teacher. My activities in high school were participating in football, baseball, and the scholarship federation. I am a very active person and outgoing." Another typical response was provided by an individual who said, "I would like to someday become a pediatrician. If not, I would like to teach preschool. I am a rubber stamp collector. I'm just an easy person to get along with."

Students are also asked to explain what they hope to gain from their participation in the mentoring program. It is not our intention to be intrusive by asking this question. Rather, we have found that this information is helpful to the mentors as they begin to assist in meeting student needs and expectations. From our perspective, this question serves as a type of low-level needs assessment for our program as well as helping us to gain an understanding of student needs and desires. Most of the students' responses about what they want from the mentoring program fall into three categories. Often the students are quite direct about their concerns with matriculating at a large urban university. As one student put it, I

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would like to ease my transition to SJSU. (I would like to) have somebody to talk to and to ask for advice." Some students realize that learning the "ropes" at the university might be difficult. A student comment that represents this point of view was from an individual who wrote, "I hope to be involved with a person who knows how SJSU works." Another person wrote, "I would like extra assistance in my transferring to SJSU. I will feel more at ease knowing that I can ask questions of a qualified person." One student said, "They could help me with the adjustment of moving away to an unfamiliar place with unfamiliar people and an unfamiliar class load." Similarly, a student said, "I would like to get a mentor who will help me in my transition from high school to college and also teach me his ways of being a successful person." With similar intent but with a slightly different twist, another student noted that she would like "to get [information and assistance] from a real human person rather than a system of answering machines."

A large number of the student applicants want advice, direction, and guidance. Typical of this motivation for participation was the comment of a young man who said, "Direction. I want to make sure I am doing everything right. I don't have time to be playing around. I want to reach my goal and do what I always wanted to accomplish—teaching." Another student who wished to avoid a previous, unsatisfactory experience wrote, "From the program I want someone who will guide me into the right direction of the classes I need to take for my degree. When I was at a junior college I really got the run around." Typical of many students who want direction was the comment of a junior transferring to the university who said, "Since I'm a little confused, maybe I could get a push in the right direction. I also hope all questions I have can be answered. Hopefully I can also develop a relationship with someone who I can come to for guidance when I need it."

Many students wish to have a personal relationship—to be able to put a "face" on the university. One young woman recently wrote that she wanted "one person to talk to, a friend to listen to my concerns, questions, and joys." Another student wrote simply, "I would like to get a lifetime friend." Perhaps anticipating problems in college, a student said, "I would like to feel better about the college I attend by having someone to talk one-on-one with." Likewise, another student's request was for "A friend. Someone to help me find my place in this huge campus." In the same vein another student wrote, "I would like to get to know someone that I know will always be there for me when I have problems with school or if I need advice with my personal problems."

When a mentor takes on a student as a mentee, he or she receives a copy of the application. Many mentors report that the information it contains is pivotal in "launching" the relationship. The student applications provide key pieces of information to the mentor. These forms indicate something about the student as a person and suggest, often very specifically, ways the

mentor might be able to assist the student. The application, then, serves as a catalyst for two strangers to begin working together.

The Mentor's Application

Mentors also complete an application to become a volunteer in the program. This document is extremely useful in making decisions about the operation of the program. The application provides basic information about the mentor: name, department, position, email and office addresses, and the like. Mentors are asked to indicate the number of mentees they prefer to have assigned to them, with the stipulation that the maximum is four. For the past five or six years, mentors have consistently opted for one or two mentees. Information about capacity is useful in predicting the approximate number of students we will be able to accommodate.

Mentors are also asked to indicate the ways in which the program can assist them in their efforts to mentor the students. In analyzing responses to this question, we identify ways to develop the auxiliary elements of the program. For example, mentors frequently suggest that there are problems getting students to keep appointments. In response, we have instituted a number of efforts to remind the students of why they enrolled in the program in the first place. First time mentors often indicate that they have no idea what the program can do to support their efforts. A new mentor recently wrote in response to this question, "I'm not familiar enough with your service at this point to answer your question." Typically, such a statement triggers a supportive call about three weeks into the semester. The goal of these calls is to try to address potential problems before they develop into issues that overwhelm the volunteer mentor.

Many mentors request social activities that involve the mentees. Comments include suggestions that we provide a "get to know each other type of event at the beginning of the year" or "arrange social events for the entire group." Each year we attempt to do both of these things. Early in the fall there is an orientation to the program that includes only a little information about the program but many opportunities for mentor/mentee pairs to talk with each other and with other participants in the program. The theater arts department annually provides free tickets for many of their performances to people involved in the FMP, and we encourage mentors and students to take advantage of this social opportunity.

Frequently mentors will ask for information about campus resources. The students assigned to them often ask questions about such diverse things as where to get a library card and whether there is a place on campus to get a TB test. To some extent the workshop topics we present are derived from a content analysis of the resources about which mentors say they want information. In addition, we have developed resource binders containing brochures from a wide variety of campus services and have distributed these binders to mentors.

Acknowledgment of the Mentor's Service

Another element of the design of the program that appears to positively impact the willingness of mentors and students to participate is the degree to which we provide modest incentives. All mentors are volunteers; they are neither paid for their time nor released from other academic responsibilities such as committee work to serve with the program.

We are able to provide a $150 allocation per year to the mentors for each student mentored. These funds can be used in one of two ways. Mentors can invest their allocations in professional development activities such as subscriptions to scholarly journals, research expenses, membership in professional organizations. At a university where funds for travel and research are chronically tight, many mentors welcome the assistance this allocation provides.

The funds can also be used to defray the costs of activities with the mentee. Often these expenses are for social activities. For example, we have a number of mentors who take their students out to lunch each month. One mentor, when he discovered that he and his mentee shared an interest in basketball, invited the student to games and used part of his allocation to buy the additional ticket. Some mentors make the allocation available to the student to help with the purchase of textbooks. Regardless of how the mentors wish to use the allocation, the important thing is that the program acknowledges their work in some small way.

We also recognize the mentors' work in other ways. Near the end of the year we sometimes take out a large ad in the student newspaper thanking mentors for their work and listing their names, along with a short note of appreciation signed by the president of the university. We want such public recognition to encourage others on campus to participate in the program. At other times, we are more concrete in demonstrating our gratitude to mentors for the service they provide. While handsome certificates of appreciation are a nice gesture and are sometimes displayed on office walls, we have found that a more tangible "thank you" produces a good response. For example, three weeks before the end of the academic year, through the campus mail, we send out applications to participate for the next year. Last year we followed the distribution of applications with a second mailing about two weeks later. We sent a brief note of appreciation and included a half-pound box of chocolate truffles. Within three days more than 40 additional applications to participate had arrived in our office. Never underestimate the power of chocolate!

Workshops Responsive to Students' Needs

Each semester we offer two or three workshops on subjects we anticipate will be useful to both mentors and students. In general, the topics fall into three categories. The first, and by far most popular, is campus services. Clearly students are unclear about the vast array of opportunities available to them on campus. Surprisingly, many faculty are also unaware of some of the most basic services offered to students. To name just a few, we have had workshops on financial aid, offerings of the career center and the health center, services of the counseling department, and assistance provided by the campus tutorial center. The general response is that students are surprised that free or low-cost services are available to them on campus. Faculty, although perhaps familiar with the names of the services, often are not at all clear about just exactly what is provided.

A second general topic of our workshops has been relationship building. Typically we provide single-session training experiences on relationships and specifically on the mentoring relationship. We often approach this topic from the perspective of helping participants to identify what their preferred style of interacting might be. For example, we consider such issues as whether the student wants someone who will prescribe activities or someone who is a collaborator in solving problems. Recognizing which approach the participants prefer has been quite helpful in getting the mentor/mentee pairs to talk about basic issues of style. When we have tried multi-session presentations on mentoring, we have found that attendance drops off noticeably after the first session. This suggests to us that, in this instance, "one shot" workshops are far more welcome and effective than on-going training.

Finally, our workshops focus on issues relevant to the students' activities at the university. We select topics that we believe will be of general interest but will also contribute to the academic performance of the students. For example, it is not unusual for our students to have difficulty composing essays and term papers. In response to this problem we have offered workshops that provide tips on how to write. Such a workshop is usually offered near the beginning of the term, just after term paper assignments have been introduced since this is a time students begin to identify a need for such information and skill.

We also know that students have a hard time organizing their daily schedules. To provide some assistance in this area we have presented workshops on time management skills. A workshop of this type is usually presented near the end of the semester, a time when many students feel the press of project due dates and final examinations.

The workshops we offer are not intended to supplant the work accomplished between the mentor and student. Attendance at the workshops is not a requirement of being included in the program. In fact, we explicitly

indicate that these events are voluntary. We present these activities as opportunities to augment the mentoring relationship and the independent efforts of the student.

Providing Incentives

We have found that it is essential to provide incentives of various types that will encourage people to become a part of the FMP program, foster their continued involvement, and support and enhance their efforts. The primary incentives we use are gifts as prompts, small grants program, and providing food and meals at events.

Gifts as Prompts

At every FMP-sponsored event for students and their mentors (and at times even through the mail), we provide inexpensive gifts to participants. These items account for a very small portion of our budget. We have found that these gifts are an excellent investment. We use them in a variety of ways. For example, near the end of the fall semester one year we distributed highlighters with a reminder to students about the importance of studying. At a stress management workshop we gave all the participants day-glow orange, magenta, or chartreuse yo-yos. We have also given out key chains, insulated cold drink cups, tee shirts, pens, small flashlights, and balls. While these objects may appear to be frivolous and, in fact, probably are, in every case the words "SJSU Faculty Mentor Program" have been prominently marked on the gift. The point we make when we distribute these things is that we hope the item will serve as a reminder, a prompt to the mentor and the student to contact each other. The value of these give-away items is that they support the primary goal of the program to develop relationships between mentors and students while serving as a reminder to keep the relationships going.

Small Grants Program

While the focus of the FMP is to retain students at the university and to assist them with achieving their academic goals, especially that of earning a diploma, we are also interested in helping students consider the possibility of graduate education in their futures. We wish to support a variety of approaches in which the mentor and the student can work together on an activity or project that can be viewed as preparation for graduate study. With this in mind, we developed a small grants program.

Each semester we distribute a flyer to both the mentors and students inviting them to apply for funds through the program. The maximum grant is for $500. The funds can be used for three types of activities. We

support travel costs for students to accompany their mentors to professional conferences. For example, over the past several years, one of the mentors from the chemistry department has regularly applied for funding for each of his students to take them with him to regional meetings. Once there, he introduces them to his colleagues, accompanies them to paper sessions, and generally helps them to understand what an academic chemist does at professional meetings.

Realizing that many faculty have research programs, but relatively little funding for graduate assistants, we also encourage mentors to request small grants so that they can use the funds to support their students in conducting research with them. Most often the funds are used for student stipends or hourly wages, although they can also be used to defray research costs such as materials, photocopying, and travel to collect data. This research-related use of the funds has been particularly successful in helping students to be able to leave their jobs at low paying positions unrelated to their area of interest and to engage in work that has greater relevance to what they might do when they graduate. A mentor in the department for administration of justice made fine use of this application of funds. One of her mentees worked at a fast food restaurant for compensation only slightly above minimum wage. The student was interested in collecting data from arrest records that could be used to document a trend the mentor suspected might exist. This student was able to quit her job and, supported by the FMP funds, immediately begin work on the records. The two of them completed the work within a semester. The mentor collected useful data to support a scholarly publication and the student, who shared in that publication, also received career-appropriate experience.

Not all students wish to attend professional meetings nor can they all fit research into their busy schedules. However, they do need help in preparing for post-baccalaureate tests such as the GRE, the LSAT, the MCAT, or the MSAT. The small grants can, likewise, be used to help them prepare for these tests. Each year we support several students in their efforts to complete test preparation courses that will assist them in doing well on the tests which will, in part, determine whether they will enter graduate programs.

The small grants program has been particularly successful in encouraging students to become more involved with their mentors and with the discipline of their chosen major. For several years, we have made about 35 grants annually. Those funds have led to the development of a number of research papers and projects. More importantly, each year several of the students who have received these grants continue in their education and enroll in graduate programs either at our university or elsewhere.

Providing Food and Meals

Food is an important feature at every FMP event. Whenever there is a workshop, orientation, or gathering of any type, food is always served. Usu-

ally our meetings are held around midday, so we often offer lunch. On the flyers that are mailed out to participants, this feature of the meeting is prominently noted. There is little doubt that a free lunch tips the scales in encouraging people to attend. Normally at the orientation, for example, there is a standing-room-only crowd of about 200 people in attendance. At a commuter university like ours, that is an unusually high number of people at an event of any kind. While we would like to think that it is the information they will receive that entices such a crowd, we are also aware that the decision to attend is more easily made if a tasty lunch is provided.

Food also provides a context for socializing. We never begin a workshop or any other meeting precisely at the time advertised. There is usually a period of about five or ten minutes when people are selecting their lunches, finding a seat, and chatting with each other as they do their best to balance plates on their laps. This delay is a deliberate decision made to promote interaction between people. At the heart of any mentoring program is the development of relationships. We find that by providing food and time for interaction to occur, we create a context within which participants can get to know one another and feel like part of some larger group on campus.

Program Evaluation

A final element in our program that we regard as crucial to success is ongoing evaluation research that addresses both quantitative and qualitative criteria. We believe that a successful mentoring program must include a deliberate effort to conduct formal evaluative research utilizing both quantitative and qualitative data. Such study informs decisions about the provision of services and resources. Ultimately, it also functions as an advocacy tool when weighing the relative value of a range of student services on university campuses.

The evaluative research on mentoring in educational settings ranges broadly from studies of peer mentoring in secondary education to studies of faculty/graduate mentoring in doctoral programs (Franke & Dahlgren, 1996; Queen, 1994; Wilde & Schau, 1991). We have added to that body of research with both formative and summative evaluations that address the effectiveness of the FMP.

One of our first program evaluation efforts was focused on determining whether the program was successful in achieving its primary goal of student retention (Campbell & Campbell, 1997). Evaluation of empirical data showed that compared with a carefully matched set of students who did not participate in the program, students mentored through the FMP had a dropout rate almost half the rate of comparable non-mentored students. Further, students' GPAs were approximately one-fourth of a letter grade

higher and an average of one additional academic unit was completed per semester in the mentored group compared with the matched controls. Based on these findings, not only is the FMP an effective partner in helping to retain students but participation in the program also appears to facilitate academic performance and efficient progress toward the completion of the bachelor's degree.

A somewhat different approach to assessing outcomes of the program has been to explore whether mentors and students hold different perspectives of the benefits and challenges of participation in the program. Each party enters into the relationship with initial assumptions and expectations. Clearly, the potential exists for conflict between differing expectations and needs as the relationship develops and such conflicts can jeopardize the success of the mentoring relationship. In a recent study (Campbell & Campbell, 2000), we found that students rated the relationship significantly more positively overall than did their mentors. Students and mentors differed in what they valued in the relationship. Mentors were more likely to mention personal friendships with students as a benefit, and students were more likely to mention receiving academic help as a benefit. Interestingly, students and mentors differed sharply in their ability to identify benefits to mentors from the mentoring relationship. Fully 37 percent of the students reported they could think of no benefits to the mentor for participation in the program. It appears that many students had not considered that a mentoring program might have benefits to those who volunteer as mentors as well as to the student mentees.

When asked, students generally indicated that the only problem they perceived in the mentoring relationship was finding time for meetings and scheduling them. In sharp contrast, faculty frequently reported an additional problem: lack of commitment from the students (e.g., unreturned phone calls, failure to show up for meetings, and the like).

The general impression one gets from the data is that students in a mentoring program are primarily interested in receiving assistance with academic matters while faculty and staff mentors are more sensitive to the social benefits of a helping relationship. Faculty liked the idea of developing a personal bond with individual students, and they saw real value in making use of such a bond to stay in touch with changing student interests and attitudes. We have used these findings to alter our orientation materials. We hope that the frustration faculty feel with students who fail to fully engage with the program will be reduced, thus preventing interpersonal problems from developing.

Both of these studies (Campbell & Campbell, 1997, 2000) have been useful to the program. The 1997 research has been particularly helpful in empirically establishing what the specific effects of the program have been with regard to primary program goals. In discussion with administrators about the university investment of resources, it is particularly effective to be in a position to provide quantitative data about program outcomes.

The second study has been directly applicable to program design. We have been able to change some of our resource materials and have also somewhat altered our orientation for new mentors based on these data. In so doing, we believe that we have been able to reduce the mentors' frustration with students by helping them to appreciate the students' perspective on the relationship. Without this evaluative research, neither of these efforts would have been successful.

CONCLUSION

The Faculty Mentor Program at San José State University is a well-established retention service on campus. Over the roughly 15 years of its existence, we have learned a number of important lessons about how to organize an effective program which we have shared in this chapter. We hope it will be valuable to others as they develop, implement, and evaluate mentoring programs of their own.

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CHAPTER 7

MENTORING ASPIRING SCHOOL LEADERS IN SCHOLARLY WRITING THROUGH CASE STUDIES OF DIVERSITY

Carol A. Mullen

This chapter describes a multi-level process of mentoring educational leadership students to conduct applied research, develop scholarly papers, and serve as mentors to one another. The interactive instructional and learning activities described were developed to improve educational environments and practices for graduate students and for public school students classified as at-risk.

In this "age of accountability," there has been increasing concern about the academic progress of students classified "at risk." Innovative teaching strategies and new models of organization and school leadership are being proposed to assure the success of these students. Such changes in the school setting require changes in the preparation of educational leaders in graduate study. Recognizing this, I designed a course to foster students' abilities to investigate and develop plans to address the needs of at-risk students. As part of my design, I used mentoring to address this issue and another often neglected area of graduate study—fostering scholarly writing skills (Mullen, 1999, 2001). An integral part of the course was having students serve as both mentor and mentee, thus engaging them completely in the mentoring process. During the course of the class, I also engaged in conducting the research reported in this chapter using a case study

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method to examine the class as it unfolded and to report on the learning outcomes that occurred. In this text I deal with these joint-issues, just as I did through my graduate course, using case studies as the vehicle for inquiry in conjunction with the writing-and-learning process.

I begin this chapter by describing the structure of the course and the composition of the students involved. This is followed by a general description of the instructional processes, which are then presented in detail. There are three parts to this discussion. The first gives a brief rationale for and definition of case study that builds upon the comentoring process. This section also outlines the benefits accrued (e.g., skills development) for educational leadership graduate student/practitioners.

The second part of this sharing addresses the case studies of diversity developed by my student group. It includes their discoveries of consequence and their solutions for dealing with problems of considerable magnitude that they developed in a contextually sensitive rather than simplified manner.

Third, this article highlights the pedagogical framework used to facilitate the development of the students' scholarly writing skills as they prepared their case studies. The Writing Process and Feedback (WPF) model that I previously developed as a vehicle for reflexive action that led to a blueprint for reflexive action (Mullen, 1999; 2001), was used to structure the writing, research, and discussion of my student group. Peer mentoring (comentoring) dynamics are essential for encouraging students to coach each other's development, learning, and problem-solving efforts. Since these dynamics are integral to the WPF model my students were invited to contribute to the group as a whole, enabling the writing program that depended on their engagement to be effective.

Benefits and drawbacks of this pedagogical experiment on the development of school practitioners in higher education are presented in the concluding section of the chapter. This is followed by information on outcomes and lessons learned.

CLASS COMPOSITION AND DESCRIPTION

The course was a graduate seminar in Educational Leadership conducted in the fall of 2000. Students in the class were completing their course requirements for a master's degree at the University of South Florida (a Research I extensive university). Not atypically, the class was composed of a random group of "parachutists" or, as I later describe them, "birds" that became ready to "take flight" as the course progressed. Although nearing graduation, these individuals had more intensive work to accomplish as developing researchers and leaders, in charge of their own inquiry and learning.

The nine practitioners—seven female European American (White) students, one White male and an African American female student—ranged from 29 to 55 years of age. Every one of the students was or had been a practicing school teacher, with from 6 to 16 years of classroom experience. Two of them had retired from teaching and were active consultants and peer coaches in schools. With the exception of one individual, who was an acting assistant principal (AP), none of the group members had had any administrative experience although most aspired to become school administrators.

Students engaged in developing a case analysis of a problem related to at-risk students in which they offered solutions and plans of action. They then developed these analyses into publishable, scholarly case studies. Throughout the course I mentored them individually and as a group and they mentored one another. Thus, we engaged in intensive comentoring relationships throughout the term of the course.

ORGANIZATIONAL LAYERS OF INSTRUCTION, MENTORING, AND LEARNING

In this discussion, I am detailing the case studies my students engaged in and the meta case study I developed while conducting research on the course as it was implemented. For my research, I used the case studies of diversity produced in my leadership course as "data" for analyzing relevant educational issues raised by the group. I have included these data in this text through brief summaries of their cases. This will allow the reader to gain a deeper understanding of the topics studied, the processes used in the course, and the results of my case study of the course.

This approach is consistent with the case study method that honors the voice and perspectives of students (Boehrer & Linsky, 1990). The students' voices are also heard in this chapter vis-à-vis a survey assessment that I designed. The survey was distributed at the final class session to gain deeper insight into the students' experience of the writing process model; also, I try to bring to life the voices of this group by sharing paraphrases and quotes from their case studies.

Case Study Method of Learning

Why should case study development be used with school practitioners? Lortie (1998) provides a number of compelling reasons. The learning of new skills and the improvement of existing ones is a major benefit. For example, my students learned how to collect and "write up" data as stories

and analysis, both in an accessible and convincing way. This complex skill is increasingly required of teachers and administrators responsible for interpreting school and student data, for reporting their results to stakeholders and legislative bodies, and for making informed program and restructuring decisions based on their interpretive processes. Thus, school practitioners must be able to not only generate data to investigate problems needing study, but to use their findings to make informed judgments. They also need to learn how to work with others to discuss the data that has been collected.

Students need exposure to case study models in university programs to help them face complex issues in their educational domains and to investigate problems and generate solutions (Merriam, 1998). The graduate seminar is an ideal place for this to occur, enabling students to identify problems in local school situations that demand their attention and "intelligent action" (Lortie, 1998). The use of cases, and the sharing of stories and events, is essential to the applied learning of any group of aspiring professionals, including those studying medicine, law, business, and education. However, creative and empirical methods also need to be used by aspiring professionals so that cases—those stories of importance and events—can be turned into complex, data-rich case stories. Such educational inquiries pose problems that reflect an informed perspective worthy of analysis.

Designing Case Studies of Diversity

In my course, which was conducted as a seminar, students prepared case studies, mindful that they were being invited to explore their topics more deeply while comentoring one another in the process. These two goals were inextricably connected to the success of each individual's progress and to the group as a whole. Students were given the freedom to select the topic of their case study. It is important to note that this group of aspiring administrators, most of whom expressed fulfillment in their role as classroom teachers, chose to pursue issues of diversity for their case study research. The group thus shared a common bond, although some chose to study critical aspects of at-risk student populations in classrooms and schools while others opted to examine the larger problem of children in need at the local school, school district, and state levels.

In my work, I am discriminating between case study and case stories even though they are typically treated as the same. We began our entry into case study development by reading short vignettes, which I term case stories, of incidents that occurred in schools. At first the students thought that these short, non-analytical vignettes, which we were using as warm-up exercises were "case studies." I was concerned that they might follow the model

of the vignette in preparing their case studies, as they had intimated as much. If they were to follow this path, their inquiries would have amounted to storytelling only. School stories, although essential for setting the scene for readers, for describing dynamics among key players, and for bringing context to life, do not provide the deep analysis I wanted my students to engage in. Case stories focus on description without sufficient analysis (i.e., data collection, interpretation of data, and preliminary insights) of a particular issue. I explained that their cases must be much more comprehensive then this. Thus, I challenged them to "marry" story with research, which I defined for them as a case study.

Consistent with concepts advocated by Lortie (1988), I assured that, for their case study analysis, my students learned how to integrate research into their schools (and school board settings) in a context of their making. In doing so, they were able to develop their interpersonal skills, specifically interviewing, observation, and networking.

Instead of establishing a one-way learning climate with myself as the "master" of specialized knowledge and skills and the students as recipients, I chose to use the contemporary design of peer-based and guided learning. This approach turns the instructor into a learner and it levels the playing field of power, with the students becoming equal contributors to an authentic agenda of discovery (Mullen, 1999). The students in this seminar became active learners, the way that others have become animated in reports on case-based teaching: offering ideas, raising questions, building on each other's statements, constructing a collective analysis, reframing the discussion, challenging the teacher, and learning with and from each other as much or more than from the teacher (e.g., Boehrer & Linsky, 1990).

As self-consciously functioning researchers, school practitioners can affect decision-making, change, and leadership at the building level (Mullen & Graves, 2000). Toward these ends, my students thought together about what "data" itself means as well as the possible meanings of the data that each collected as part of their information search. These new learning processes enabled intelligent responses to the students' pressing questions.

My students used their class discussion group as a "sounding board." This way, they could proactively assist one another (comentoring) toward identifying issues, generating alternative approaches to the problems raised, and trying out possibilities until a solution was arrived at. They dug into the nitty-gritty aspects of developing an inquiry. For example, the students elicited feedback to develop and improve their data-generating tools (e.g., survey instruments and interview protocols). They also used the group as a pilot to launch their instruments and analyze their preliminary findings. A few sought advice on how to best approach awkward interpersonal situations, such as seeming indifference from key respondents (typi-

cally administrators) in returning telephone calls, committing to interview times, or filling out surveys.

LEARNING OUTCOMES

In the next section, I describe the comentoring approach using the diversity themes from the students' case study topics. I then present a summary of the additional learning outcomes I uncovered through my case study analysis of the course. These data illustrate not only the thinking processes the students engaged in, but also the depths of the analytical abilities they developed as an outgrowth of their work.

My graduate group's case studies represented diversity within the two educational areas of (1) at-risk student populations, and (2) the impact of state and school accountability systems on children in need. For the first theme, they explored such issues as student retention and its effects on children from low socioeconomic backgrounds, and coaching support for teachers who need mentoring in how to work with at-risk students. Regarding school and state levels of accountability, my students examined such areas as the virtual lack of structural and comprehensive support services for at-risk students in Florida. These distinctions are somewhat artificial, as all nine students addressed both themes; however, each did, by virtue of the context established, primarily pursue one of these directions. An overview follows of each of the themes with exemplary case illustrations.

Diversity Theme #1: At-Risk Student Populations

Concerning at-risk student populations, my students studied the negative effects of grade retention. For those examining academically at-risk school environments, the focus was on resiliency issues for young students. These two issues are next described.

Effect of Grade Retention on At-Risk Children

One graduate student studied her own classroom in which five students were repeating the 5th grade. The increasing "retention trend" in her school resulting from an emphasis on standardized testing concerned her. This veteran elementary teacher thus felt compelled to study how "being retained affects the children's self-esteem." She also aspired to learn "whether the extra year is helping the students academically by giving them more practice and time to succeed, and, if so, how." As a future administrator, she anticipated the need to make informed decisions con-

cerning the retaining of students and about retention. As she stated it, "More information would help me to know if the increasing number of students being retained is positive or negative."

This teacher's written introduction to her case study established the push at the state level for academic excellence and the achievement of benchmarks. She produced evidence indicating that a relationship existed between the larger context of top-down influences and the impact on her school of "more children being retained in their current grade until they pass certain criteria." For example, the statistics she included show that a dramatic increase has occurred in the rate of grade retention over the past 20 years; additionally, she noted the dichotomy that while many teachers believe grade retention can be an "effective remediation strategy" for early learners, research studies suggest that retention may actually produce few benefits, and appears to be related to increased student drop-out rates.

For her study, this teacher initially chose to probe the situation of the five "retainees" in her class through interviews. But then she became curious to learn whether the children's responses would match their parents' responses and designed a parental survey (with our group's input) on the effects of retention. From the completed interviews and surveys, this teacher discovered that two of the five retainees perceived themselves as doing better both academically and socially—they felt good about school and themselves. Unfortunately, the other three retainees had not fared as well, since it appeared that their self-esteem was being adversely affected.

This teacher's review of the literature combined with her own research created a shift in her personal thinking—from being neither an advocate nor an opponent to establishing an informed middle ground. The graduate seminar helped her to avoid swinging from one extreme to the other on the grade retention issue, and to see her findings as preliminary and her stance on the topic as evolving. For the "suggested future directions" of her conclusion (which was a required aspect of the case study), the teacher called for more research. She had identified a gap in the literature around the long-term effects that retention may (or may not) have on individual elementary students from different socioeconomic backgrounds.

A Student Population Teetering on Resiliency

For her case study, an African American teacher with 6 years of classroom teaching experience focused on the resiliency of students in a middle school environment located within a lower class neighborhood. This researcher came to view resiliency—that quality of being able "to bend and not break under threatening pressures" as she described it—as the catalyst for addressing both the problems and the possibilities for growth at her school.

This teacher's contact with respondents led her to view the over-populated school where she works as engaged in a "journey toward resiliency

that must be a journey all of its teachers and students are willing to take." She indicated that such consistency is critical for this school in part because 34% of the student population was classified (in 1999) with some type of exceptionality; in fact, it is thought that this school "will become an Exceptional Student Education (ESE) center in the near future." In order to explore whether "resiliency building factors are evident among the teachers and students at her racially mixed, white-black school," she interviewed counselors, parents, teachers, and students.

From interviews with this cross-section of participants, my student concluded this about contributors to stress in a school environment that negatively impacts resiliency: "school accountability and assessment are 'foundational' stressors causing many educators to wonder about their professional future and the children's chances for any level of success." As this school faces the threat of becoming D-rated (as fore-warned on its most recent state accountability report), the teacher astutely asked how at-risk schools like hers can "raise student performance and achieve authentic progress given the persistence of high stress among its people and stakeholders." Taking action to help strengthen her school, the teacher first identified what she imaginatively called "stressors" and "buffers;" then she considered "steps toward moving the school from risk to resiliency by devising a strategy to minimize the stressors." Using relevant literature and case data from multiple participant groups, including at-risk students, four compounding stressors were identified as problematic: unmotivated students, low parental involvement, high teacher turnover rate, and discipline problems.

To build student and teacher resiliency, the teacher recommended that her school culture be altered in three ways: strengthening bonds with families, teaching life skills to students, and establishing high expectations for students and teachers. She widened her lens to look at how resiliency can be fostered beyond the school through the support of its school district. As future reform directions, the author indicated that two major systemic stressors need to be resolved before the school people can "change their future for the better"—the insufficient resources necessary for meeting the increased expectations for school performance, and the lack of recognition for student strengths that are not tested or numerically counted.

Diversity Theme #2: School and State Accountability

For the second diversity theme, my graduate students focused on a range of structural issues at the systemic, local, and programmatic level. These teachers' case studies investigated and supported the role of schools in recognizing/satisfying the diverse needs of low socioeconomic students,

many of whom have been classified with Specific Learning Disabilities (SLD).

One School's Response to the Challenge of Poverty

A first grade teacher in my class explored the resources needed for students living in poverty (e.g., systemic support systems) that are ostensibly being overlooked by the state. She used information gleaned from Payne's (1998) book, *A Framework for Understanding Poverty*, which inspired her "to form a focus group to discuss the resources that our school chose to work on offering support."

Aligned with what Lortie (1998) would expect, the case study exercise stimulated this teacher to take intelligent action in her school. She positioned herself to investigate the kind of support that was needed to serve the school's majority population from low-income families. After initiating and facilitating a teacher focus group that included an achievement specialist and a Title 1 facilitator, she reported her findings to the administration. It was determined that three kinds of resources were needed to support the school success of the low-performing students: *mental resources* (e.g., give teachers more curriculum support by placing some non-ESE students into ESE work groups with teaching assistants), *relationships/role models* (e.g., daily scheduled mentoring of each student by assigned staff members), and *knowledge of hidden rules* (e.g., the expectation that students will use the formal language of the school).

After seeking changes at the school based on her focus group work, this teacher experienced resistance. This led her to believe that not all staff would be willing to move the school forward in the mission to provide the necessary resources for every student's success. She attributed this problem to an uneven distribution of accountability among the adults at her school, and sought to address it in a follow-up study.

Supports and Programs Needed to Assist At-Risk Children

A veteran teacher retired and new to Florida, decided to examine the systemic level of accountability that impacts on schools, as represented by the state of Florida. She looked at the degree to which supports and programs are available to assist at-risk children who exhibit behaviors in school that "inhibit their ability to be academically successful." This risk-taking case study identified numerous issues through interviews with school district level administrators, head administrators of community-based agencies (e.g., the Florida Office of Juvenile Justice), and school staff.

The interview process informed the researcher of the state's virtual deficiency concerning intervention aimed at "organized services and programs that could exert a positive effect on the educational outcomes for students who exhibit severe behavioral problems from pre-school to the age of 10." This information gave her an understanding of why she had experienced

so many "dead-ends" for children with this profile during her teaching career. Analyzing the data she had collected, she speculated that fragmented community support ("poor neighborhood involvement") for children at risk of failure in school and society was at the root of the problem. Calling for the active involvement of all community stakeholders and agencies in the mentoring and care of children living in poverty, this teacher drew on the contemporary literature in moral leadership to poignantly make her argument.

GENERAL LEARNING OUTCOMES

This hands-on work, through case study development, strengthened my students' images of themselves as researchers, often stumbling and awkward at first, but increasingly capable over time. Importantly, the ability they demonstrated to view problems from multiple angles and to thus tolerate complexity became evident. As a group, they shifted from relying on simplified and untested assumptions about school practice (e.g., grade retention is a valuable remediation tool) to expressing curiosity about what a study of passionate interest might reveal.

Additionally, my students filled many of the gaps discovered in their knowledge and experience. This immersion within an energizing group afforded each individual who was invested in the new learning a variety of perspectives on and solutions to the issues raised. Lortie (1998) calls this phenomenon "gap recognition," saying that this awareness feeds informed action for school administrators.

A vital part of the case study development process included mentoring in the writing process using the WFP model. This process and the learning outcomes from it are described in the section that follows.

WRITING PROCESS AND FEEDBACK MODEL

The students in my master's seminar reported, verbally and through my end of course survey, that until this point in their university studies they had received little formal guidance in writing and research. Based on my early and ongoing assessment of their needs and skills, their lack of skill in these areas appeared evident. This student group, not adequately prepared to write well for academe or for their professional fields, resembled other graduate student groups in educational leadership that I have taught. In my experience as a mentoring and writing specialist, these experienced and sometimes seasoned professionals have a great fear of writing and an even greater fear of failure. Many entered the teaching field some

time ago without having mastered the writing skills needed for their careers and, quite possibly, for the increased demands on the need for applied research to improve schools and schooling.

Previous articles of mine (see Mullen, 1999; 2001) explain the innovative curricular program that I use to guide my graduate student groups to become competent researchers and writers. Hence, what is provided here is a brief outline of the Writing Process and Feedback (WPF) model that has helped my students to significantly develop research and writing skills over the course of one semester. The goals of this model are for students to produce a piece of work that can make a difference in their school systems and elsewhere and that will be disseminated, even published to reach a wider audience. The WPF model incorporates multiple structured writing phases, published readings related to the course, and a peer mentoring classroom structure. By the time students complete the course that uses this model, they had learned to draft, revise, and polish writing based on an applied research topic, with knowledge of how and where to disseminate their works. Importantly, they also learn the dynamics of creating a peer study group invested in giving valuable constructive feedback to all members. Such dynamics include a complex array of joint problem solving, rotation of personal attention, careful textual analysis, evidence-based perspectives, salient examples, and open-ended questioning.

SURVEY FEEDBACK FROM STUDENTS

The students responded to a survey outlining short-answer questions to elicit feedback about the writing model and the case study. Students described and evaluated the WPF process; they also shared how they had applied the model to their selected case topic. Specifically, I sought information in these 10 areas:

- assistance received in other graduate courses with writing and research
- assessment of the WPF model that was used to structure the case study model
- what was learned about research and writing not previously known
- what was discovered about the self as a researcher and writer not previously known
- benefits of the WPF, both professionally and personally
- specific ways that the student was helped by the instructor and peers
- drawbacks to the WPF, both professionally and personally
- how the WPF writing model helped with the case study process
- how the WPF model may have interfered with the case study process

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- a descriptive metaphor or analogy to describe the WPF process in personal terms

The survey was distributed during the last class session and students returned it anonymously, subsequent to receiving their course grade. My intention was to give students sufficient time to reflect and to provide open and honest responses. The return rate for the surveys was 100% (9 forms), with all items (10) completed.

Among other reflections elicited by the survey, the students described assistance received in other graduate courses with writing and research (without using professors' names or identifying specific courses). The responses ranged from "no assistance received," to "little support," to "some help." A typical but poignant comment regarding the virtual lack of assistance was:

I have received neither assistance nor encouragement. Examples:

> Me: 'Are you going to grade/read my paper?'
> Professor: 'You don't really think that I read *those* do you?'
> Me: 'What is a position paper?'
> Another professor: 'Just write a paper with your ideas and get two to three sources, one off the Internet.'

Another similar comment read, "No one has ever put the extensive effort into improving my writing skills. The norm has been either, 'A' with a short positive comment, or 'Needs work on XXX, resubmit.'"

Responding to the question regarding the level of support they had received most indicated little support to develop their writing skills. They made such comments as, "I received a little writing help in another class I took in administration." Those who had been supported typically wrote such statements as,

> During my master's degree professors would set up time for students to attend information sessions in the library or have a librarian to present in our class. Other than that, we got minimal verbal directions and feedback on our papers."

In fact, the students had all indicated that the only intensive mentoring received on personal research and writing development had occurred in our course. (Maintaining perspective, it is important to note that they had not all studied with the entire faculty in our graduate program.)

The students' descriptions of the writing and research model reflected my own intentions for its process and outcomes. For example, typical responses included:

The model focused on

1. concept development through presentation and written reflection,
2. organization, sequencing, and technical precision, and

3. guided writing (draft development and incorporation of input).

One student exhibited an understanding of the process as a whole:

> Examples were provided to begin the learning process. Then we were given the opportunity to begin writing without the stressors of research and the APA [American Psychological Association] format. We were then given demos in APA and ways to find research, and finally how to build upon our first paper draft to make it a final product.

Although most students appreciated learning the APA format because of its wide use in education, one person found it difficult and limiting: "I personally did not like writing using the APA format and it placed stress on me."

From my perspective, the APA format was invaluable for helping me to ensure that students were identifying their sources, as proper author acknowledgment had been a major stumbling block in their accountability as writers. Time was spent on why careful citation of sources is necessary and on how this can be done effectively, with specific examples drawn from their own writing to clarify these abstract and ethical points. It was also acknowledged in the group that the APA format (probably like any other) forces the issue of conformity to rules in the academy and limits the expression of one's creativity.

Another survey question probed what was learned about research and writing that was new. Students' comments underscored skill development, which can be categorized as *developmental writing toward a major goal* (e.g., "knowledge of how to build upon your work throughout a course and then apply what you have learned in a final product"); *graduate student publication* (e.g., "publishing is possible for many of us, and we learned about journals that encourage graduate student submission and how to target these with appropriate submissions already developed in class"); *computer and Internet-related skills* (e.g., "better preparation to look up research via the Web," and "I have learned to send and receive e-mail files and to feel comfortable with 'cyberspace'"); *hands-on learning opportunities to test and apply knowledge* (e.g., "I honestly never realized that there's so much to research and documentation; it has been so long since I've written a paper. Now I know how to seek hands-on learning that will turn my school situations into writing opportunities"), and *formatting one's study using academic conventions* (e.g., "There are many details to the APA style and it is difficult to learn").

Fewer students provided reflective responses regarding what was learned about the self as a researcher and writer that was not previously known, which I found disappointing. A few students responded to the effect of needing to take their time and not "leave things until the last minute, a process of commitment that allows me to produce much better work." Importantly, one student confessed that while writing is not all that

personally enjoyable, "having the opportunity to add my own voice in writing has become a revelation to me." I was pleased to learn that for two of the students "writing has become a professional goal," although no specifics had been given.

Benefits of the WPF model for my students ranged from *increased self-efficacy* (e.g., "my confidence has been enhanced through the process and time you've taken with my writing, and my skills have improved to the next level") to *speaking in one's voice through first-person narration* (e.g., "I liked having the ability to add voice and write in the first person"); to having been *assisted to write a paper in phases* with intermittent feedback, a consensus point that was made. Specific benefits of the phase writing and feedback on drafts were expressed emotively and in a way that revealed a sense of the whole. One student wrote, "It's nice to have a project/paper go on for so long—while frustrating, it also offers a strong sense of accomplishment." Similarly, another underscored the positive attribute of having "the opportunity to submit the assignment for feedback on each phase without a grade attached, until the end." Yet another person wrote that the writing model "allowed me to be more creative and to apply what I actually do to my studies." Finally, another individual had "learned that writing is more doable in stages, a model that supports the process of understanding one's rationale, direction, and so on." These gains of the WPF model—sense of accomplishment, non-graded feedback, increased creativity, relevant application, and writing in stages—are clearly positive attributes of learning.

According to the survey feedback, the group (professor and peers) had facilitated the intellectual growth of individuals in various ways. Responses focused on the benefit of whole-class discussion, with typical examples being: "The discussion really helped to keep the case study moving forward while offering suggestions for changes" and "peer opinions helped—the instructor took us from the beginning to the end of the process (and then beyond) with almost immediate feedback at every point. Great feedback was also provided via e-mail." Especially rewarding, my students had found the group to be "helpful problem-solvers whenever they felt stuck and could not figure out how to resolve an issue." Moreover, the struggle of each individual to carve out a study was "fed by others' questions, problems, and approaches, all of which provided me with unexpected mileage each time." Finally, there was consensus that "the instructor was very accessible and always gave constructive feedback, guidance, and corrective suggestions."

Drawbacks to the WPF model included three individuals' isolated points. Someone repeated that the APA model had proven stressful, quite possibly because it places a high onus on the writer to be accountable and detailed in the use of social science inquiry. Another had found the very production of multiple drafts daunting, as it had been difficult to learn how "to write something in each section of the paper without any of this being complete until the end while having to think about other sections,

which were also in process." One can glean from this quote how the student's thinking processes had changed. The traditional writing model learned from earlier years at school—and alive in graduate school—had trained this talented individual to work in a linear, non-reflexive fashion: "The goal was to complete each section before moving to the next, and unfortunately to *not* look back." Consequently, revision and phase writing had proven laborious for her, more so than for the others who had been similarly conditioned and challenged by the revisioning process.

Finally, a third student indicated that there had been an "initial shock that my writing really could use some work." But then the student "looked forward to the process of learning while pleading ignorance to the group—no one has ever dissected my work before!" He revealed to us "feeling humbled" by the writing model. At a certain point in the development of this student's writing, a turning point was reached; his blatant dismissal of the hard work involved and even of students particularly committed to the writing process altered. This observation of personal student growth is actually a benefit of, rather than a drawback to, the WPF model.

The phase writing model had also supported the process of case study development. Feedback indicates that the students gained in the areas of *intensive reflection* (e.g., "I thought about writing more and even used the writing to think more thoroughly"); *peer coaching* (e.g., "By giving and getting feedback from my peers, I was able to reflect on what I had produced and how it could be improved"); *improved clarity of expression* (e.g., "improved the transitions in my writing and clarified my ideas"); *time management* (e.g., "helped me create a manageable timeline"); and *working in steps* (e.g., "step-by-step works best, otherwise the process of writing like this is too overwhelming"). Also, students had experienced success in the areas of *concept development* (e.g., "By completing the project in phases, I was able to identify over-developed and under-developed concepts, and unclear ideas)," and *organizational skills* (e.g., "I learned ways to organize my writing and research that I can take to my other courses and my job"). None of the students reported any interference with the phase writing model in the shaping of their case studies, a confirmation of the model's suitability.

Finally, the students imaginatively described the writing experience in personal terms. Examples of metaphors they offered include: *rainbow* ("This process was like a rainbow, many layers to make something beautiful at the end"), *journey* ("Embarking on a journey, not knowing how it's going to end, but then learning that everything has worked out"), *medicine* ("It doesn't taste good but it's good for me!"), *door opening* ("the door has opened up wide for me"), and *decorating a wedding cake* ("I used information and skills in order to develop a strong concept, then I wrote and re-wrote and got a polished finished product").

More powerfully, individual students also offered different metaphors that signaled how a transformation had occurred in their experience. One

such metaphor of the writing changed from "pain in the xxx" (initially), to "real eye-opener" (later), to "*climbing a mountain*. But, wow, what a view once I reached the peak!" Analogies to the WPF process included *tin man* ("I felt like the tin man that had been left out too long and needed oil"), and *leader* ("Our leader was like a guide on the side rather than a sage on the stage!").

DISCUSSION

The case study, writing, research, and mentoring approaches used in this course enabled the graduate students to deal with issues of concern to them. Scholarly inquiry was thereby made relevant. Inadvertently, their topics mirrored key problems currently explored in the literature (e.g., inequitable distribution of support structures for at-risk schools and non-white populations). It appears that my students' case studies reveal their capacity to learn and to develop as researchers of consequence.

As another benefit of the case study experience, my students cared so much about making a difference for disenfranchised children that they broke past fears of writing. Initally, protestations of "'I'm not a writer!" resounded, as they certainly do elsewhere (e.g., Wassermann, 1994), but then faded. These practitioners have the passion and knowledge to function as change agents who can help to transform disadvantaged places where students live in poverty and face other learning challenges. Certain studies, notably Payne's (1998) on children and poverty, meant a great deal after they had started their own engines, so to speak. As my students' case studies are being accepted, one after the other, for publication, I can hear delight in their voices intermingled with the awareness of themselves as budding writers. It is wonderful for me to view them as they experience earned pride. Likewise, when a supervisor or colleague is receptive to their proposal for change, they beam. For them this is yet another turning point.

Although my students did not share their writing concerns and related fear of academic failure on the survey, it seems clear that they have all experienced a new "peak" in their development. Judging from their metaphors of learning (e.g., journey and rainbow), combined with their informal comments, a change in their identity occurred. Subsequent to the course, one student wrote about her changing level of awareness as a developing practitioner-scholar,

> It's funny, last Thursday evening we received our papers back in Dr. [Anonymous'] class. Students had "citation??" written everywhere. Not me, thanks to you! I really appreciate all of the writing and research skills you've taught us. Even though I'm about to graduate I did not know what 'citation' meant until your class, and now I try just as you've shown us to cite sources appropriately and effectively. This kind of knowledge is a must! (e-mail message, December 2000)

This student had spelled "citation" as "sightation" in our seminar and thought that it meant "to spot a source somewhere." Yet she was the only one in her new course who had escaped a professor's admonitions about plagiarism (faulty and inadequate source referencing) on the term papers. The prospect of learning how to cite sources in academic writing and realizing why it is important to do so "freed up" not only this student but also my entire group from unnecessary sticky situations that they had been unaware of as naïve writers.

The benefits gained by my graduate students in educational leadership from developing case studies, within a mentoring context, underscore the value of the method itself. Case study writing, particularly in a supportive environment, can be an aesthetic undertaking that re-awakens one's senses and ordinary existence. The spirit of new release becomes apparent as students' imaginations are engaged, preparing them for flight despite fears of what might unfold. Case study can propel a new adventure in learning and identity that matters beyond the self. A deep renewal of self is, then, simultaneously a culturally transformative project.

Honoring this spirit of new release reminds me of a photograph that I took of birds sitting on a wire. From among them one suddenly stirs, getting ready for flight and the promise of a new journey. Initially, my group of nine students had also sat in a row, resisting the challenge of new learning until stirred by the "winds" of imagination. Like the birds, they huddled as a group hoping for an "easy professor," or at least for anonymity.

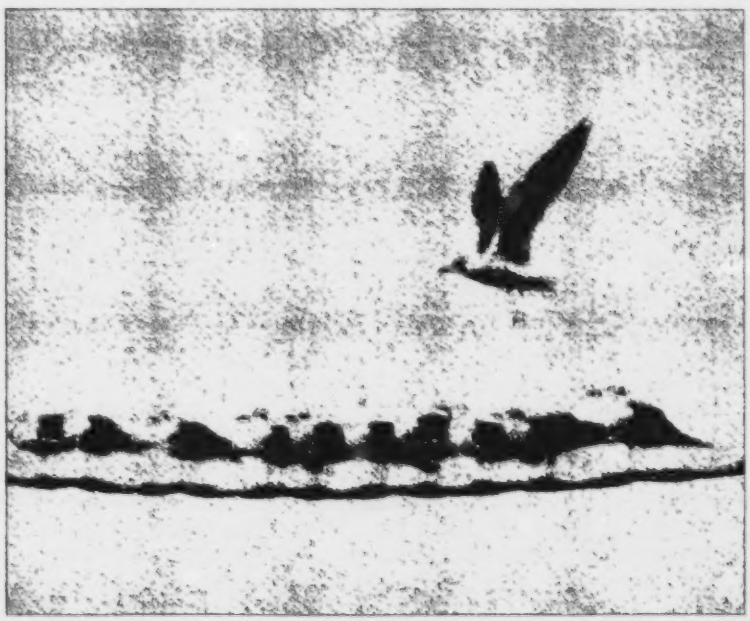

FIGURE 1
Birds on a Wire.

Then during one class session early on a student risked exposure and shared a reflective passage describing her passionate need to explore a topic. The others followed, discovering their own flight pattern.

To summarize, the mentoring-based writing model reported in this study introduced my leadership students to the following key components of academic writing and discussion:

- Incremental timelines that break writing goals into manageable sections.
- Mastery of a particular formatting style (in this case, APA).
- Familiarity with data collection and representation of research findings.
- Structured conversations with peers about writing and research problems, and possible solutions.
- Analysis of the case study (and case) literature on topics relevant to aspiring leaders.
- Knowledge of a specialized body of literature pertaining to the individual's case topic (e.g., grade retention).
- Learning characteristics that define *cases* (e.g., important events, different points of view, sympathetic characters, believable in narrative, and unresolved issues, including ambiguity of the outcome (Wassermann, 1994)).
- Related to this list, incorporating the case elements and developing a *case study* through a rigorous process of layering, analysis, and research (e.g., inquiry question(s) that drive the study, data collection and analysis, building resonance with readers to build empathy for the issue and justification for future action, and the significance of issues beyond the immediate context).

Above all, the experience of writing as an individual but shared process can facilitate students' research interests, ability to test theory in practical ways, and self-confidence as academics. Hence, students can experience success as published writers for whom new doors in the professional worlds of school and university can be opened (Mullen, 2001).

FINAL THOUGHTS

New learning conditions are needed in higher education to help prepare students for the increasing and changing demands of the professions. Changing the role of the professor from director to mentor and co-learner and uniting students through comentoring relationships are important avenues for creating such learning conditions. Case study learning within

such an environment can generate the context needed for education students to become more informed learners and better leaders.

Additionally, we need graduate student bodies that are well informed and that possess contemporary skills, especially among those aspiring to leadership positions. Toward this end, professors of education can help prepare students by guiding thought and writing processes that reflect real-world situations that are complex. This kind of transformative project can turn graduate students into practitioner-scholars equipped to lead tomorrow's schools. The ability to investigate problems of a contextual nature and to create change in the context of diversity are important capacities toward this goal.

This focus on developing graduate students in ways beyond their usual matriculation experiences offers a promising concept of leadership that is collaborative, humanitarian, and empowering. University professors in educational leadership must not only teach about these concepts of collaboration and emancipatory learning, they must also model and cocreate them with students (Kochan & Sabo, 1995; Mullen, 2001). Beginning case writers can become launched through peer coaching models as researchers of consequence. The preparation of school practitioners who attend to issues of diversity in their work is especially promising for the differences they can make. As change agents, practitioners assume responsibility for probing unresolved issues toward improving life in schools and society. Courage can take over for case writers. Motivated, some of my students have established focus groups to tackle deeply entrenched problems in their environments. Practitioners in the field can use case studies to launch deep reform work of value and significance and can learn to support each other in these efforts through supportive comentoring relationships. It is imperative that university classrooms provide safe learning environments in which practitioners can develop these skills. It is my intention to continue to develop and research these contexts. I invite my readers to do the same.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I am grateful to my students for participating in the challenging experiment described, for their faith in the process and what might come of it, and for conducting studies of diversity from the head and the heart. My class provided written consent for the use of their course papers as data for this meta case study. I am pleased that some of their case studies have been published, and especially that the work is making a difference in their school and administrative environments.

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CHAPTER 8

JOINT REFLECTIONS ON MENTORING
Creating a Legacy of Care

Cynthia Reed, Audrey L. Phillips, Tasha Parrish, and Lucinda "Cindy" Shaw

When you are receptive, mentoring can take place anywhere, anytime. If you are growing personally and professionally, then you will probably never get to a place where you can not be mentored. This, at least, has been our experience as we've engaged in mentoring relationships. This chapter describes our mentoring roles, relationships, and responsibilities as they have developed over the past two years. One mentoring relationship began as an intentional situation. The others evolved over time, beginning informally, then becoming more intentional as each party became more aware of and reflective about the mentoring relationships that were occurring.

We define mentoring as a process of coaching a person both personally and professionally. Our definition also implies an attitude of caring in which the mentor is "driven to nurture personal and professional growth in their apprentices and within themselves" (Klausmeier, 1994, p. 27). This implies that mentors should be "sensitive and trusted advisors" (Bell, 2000, p. 55). To us, being a mentor means creating a legacy of care.

DEFINING MENTORING RELATIONSHIPS

Mentoring often implies a sense of apprenticeship, the notion that one person who is wiser and more experienced will offer guidance and support

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to another, less experienced person (Funk & Kochan, 1999). This view of mentoring implies a one-way relationship, where the mentee is to some degree subservient (Kochan & Trimble, 2000). In many ways, we found this notion to be true when we initiated our mentoring relationships. However, as we developed trust between and among ourselves, worked on projects together, and developed personal as well as professional bonds, we found that we moved from these types of relationships to co-mentoring relationships. Our experiences are consistent with research suggesting that mentoring relationships change over time (Kochan & Trimble, 2000; Merriam, 1983).

There is not a great deal of research about the theories underlying mentoring (Campbell & Campbell, 2000). Instead, research on the topic has tended to focus on determining the forms that mentoring might take as well as the outcomes from mentoring relationships. As we have explored our own mentoring relationships, we have reflected upon possible "theories of becoming" (Schubert, 1986) undergirding our experiences. We view ourselves and our mentoring relationships as continually being in progress—a type of journey, perhaps without an end. Additionally, we agree with Bell (2000) that "effective mentoring is the relationship of a mentor and protégé who seek to honor their alliance by 'learning over their heels'" (p. 57).

In higher education there has been little research on faculty-to-student mentoring, but even less research on faculty-to-faculty mentoring (Goodwin, Stevens, & Bellamy, 1998). Additionally, there is often a distinction made between programmatic and natural mentoring. Evans (2000) citing Summers-Ewing, noted that there are "two types of mentors (formal and informal) and two primary mentoring functions: psychosocial and career" (p. 245). Goodwin, Stevens, and Bellamy, (1998) report similar findings in their research on mentoring in higher education. Our relationships have primarily occurred naturally and have focused on both psychosocial and career growth.

Mentors and mentees presumably approach the mentoring relationship with different expectations and needs. What tends to be consistent, though, is the importance of personal characteristics such as caring, competence, trustworthiness, and integrity (Kochan & Funk, 2000) on the part of mentors and mentees alike, as well as their ability to communicate with one another. Barker and Pitts (1997) suggest that mentoring is a

> relationship-driven, personal concept showing reciprocity between two or more individuals...[that] facilitates goal accomplishment, provides emotional and psychological support, assists with professional development, and offers role modeling" (p. 221).

We have also found these traits to be important in our mentoring relationships.

During the past decade, American universities have made efforts toward creating campus environments more reflective of the diversity of the general population in terms of gender and ethnicity (Campbell & Campbell, 2000), but college campuses are still difficult places for women and minorities. Research suggests that minority graduate students have a more difficult time bonding with faculty members than Caucasian graduate students (Kelly & Schweitzer, 1999 cited in McGhee et al., 1995). Although many programmatic efforts have been developed to foster mentoring, and consequently to support diversity, mentoring seems to work best when it is simply allowed to happen (Evans, 2000).

OUR MENTORING RELATIONSHIPS

Mentoring relationships between females that intentionally help develop new roles for them occur infrequently in universities (Kochan & Trimble, 2000; Funk & Kochan, 1999) and both racial minorities and women share a "marginalized status within academia" (Perna & Lerner, 1995). Thus, as four females at various levels in academe, (one assistant professor, one doctoral candidate, and two preservice teachers) our experiences are somewhat unique. Our mentoring relationships are not part of a formal mentoring program, but rather "simply happened."

Although our mentoring relationships are integrated and overlapping, we will describe them initially as they began, as two distinct relationships. The first relationship involves a white female assistant professor mentor working with a black female doctoral candidate mentee. The second relationship describes a co-mentoring situation in which the professor and doctoral candidate mentor two preservice teachers who are in leadership roles within a student leadership group on campus. Each of the authors and their mentoring relationships is briefly described below.

The initial mentoring relationship was formed between Cynthia and Audrey. Cynthia is a white, female assistant professor who teaches courses in Educational Leadership and serves as a faculty advisor to the College of Education Student Council. Prior to becoming an assistant professor she was a classroom teacher, a specialist in gifted education, a middle school principal, and a director of innovative collaborative programs. Among other things, Cynthia conducts research on student leadership development and others' reactions to student involvement in school restructuring. She has had several mentors throughout her career, has mentored others, and currently has two mentors at her university.

Audrey is an African American female doctoral candidate employed in a supervisory role by the university's athletic department. She is interested in leadership, particularly student leadership development, and has had extensive experience with the leadership development of college athletes.

Audrey never *asked* Cynthia to be her mentor, but rather, *told her* that she was going to be her mentor. This exchange occurred approximately two years ago. Audrey stated that she wanted to learn more about student leadership development as well as academia.

Mentoring relationships between university faculty and graduate students are considered to be the "heart of graduate education" (Kelly & Schweitzer, 1999). Thus, at first glance this mentoring relationship might appear to be typical. However, it differs from the traditional model in a number of ways. First, Audrey has not taken any classes from Cynthia. Second, Cynthia is not Audrey's major professor, nor does she serve on her doctoral committee. Last, they serve as co-advisors for the College of Education Student Council.

At first they established formal mentoring goals for Audrey. As time went on, they became more informal in working together. Typically, they speak several times a week. Conversations tend to deal with Audrey's progress with her dissertation, the work of the Student Council, or their working or professional lives.

As a part of their work with the Student Council, they have become informal mentors to a diverse group of preservice teachers who serve as Student Council officers. Two of them, Tasha and Cindy, comprise the second mentoring relationship described in this chapter. Tasha is the president of the Student Council. Cindy is the treasurer. Both of them are white females and preservice teachers in their senior year. Last year, the first year, when the mentoring relationship began, the Student Council was particularly active, tackling a variety of social and service projects. Throughout all of these, Tasha and Cindy demonstrated strong leadership skills, tenacity, and the ability and willingness to work hard.

As officers of the Student Council, Tasha and Cindy worked closely with the co-advisors. This was especially true in terms of planning for council meetings, special events, and presentations. For example, Cindy and Cynthia worked closely together when planning for and conducting a leadership presentation for a high school student group visiting campus. Audrey and Tasha collaborated while planning and organizing a very large community service activity called "Team Up for Education." Cindy and Cynthia were also actively involved in this project, although they were not the primary organizers for it. "Team Up for Education" was a complicated organizational feat, involving the College of Education, the university's Men's and Women's basketball teams, the university's athletic department marketing office, local media, and K–8 schools in the area. The purpose of "Team Up for Education" was to collect school supplies for needy students in the area by offering "free" admission to a home game in return for donated school supplies. Over 1800 items were collected and delivered to area K–8 schools. These are just two examples of the types of mentoring opportunities that have occurred.

REFLECTING ON OUR RELATIONSHIPS

In order to more systematically reflect on our mentoring relationships, the four of us developed several questions about our mentoring roles, relationships, and responsibilities which we used to engage in a dialogue about our experiences and what we had learned from them. We tape-recorded and transcribed our dialogues. Each of us read through the transcripts individually, noting and coding essential elements. We then collectively used these analyses to select the themes we considered most prominent and quotes that captured the essence of the themes. These data are reported in the reflections that follow. The questions that we addressed included:

- What does it mean to be mentored?
- What does it mean to be a mentor?
- What are important qualities in a mentor?
- What specific skills have you learned from your mentors?
- How will the skills you acquired help you in future roles?
- How do roles, relationships, and responsibilities change throughout informal mentoring situations?

The Meaning of Mentoring

When addressing what mentoring means to us, a persistent theme was that it served as an opportunity to grow in a safe environment. We tended to think of it as having a safety net. Consistent with literature on mentoring, we found that mentees viewed the mentors as providing insights and honesty, and they trusted them to help them to grow. As Audrey states it, " A mentor is a person who can teach me something, someone that I can trust to be honest with me even when it hurts." In Tasha's view, "Mentors ask the hard questions. They can see different aspects of a situation beyond what we've experienced."

A second theme was that of being supported and guided. Klausmeier (1994) indicates that good mentors should serve as coaches and protect the mentee as they develop an in-depth understanding of the culture and context. This theme is represented in Audrey's comment when she states, "having the opportunity to get to know a mentor as a person gave me the courage to attempt what previously seemed unobtainable." Cindy related this feeling of support to a specific situation when she said, " When we did large projects for Student Council, our mentors were there to coach us so we in turn will be prepared to coach future leaders in the organization.

This theme of reciprocity and mentoring as a continuous cycle was found in the perceptions of mentors as they reflected on their mentoring

relationships. As Cynthia noted, "Mentoring someone who is successful gives you a tremendous sense of pride." "Right," added Audrey, "It becomes the fostering of a legacy of leadership." We found that mentoring relationships can be a gift for both the mentor and mentee, especially when the mentee has outstanding potential. It is exciting to work with a visionary mentee and know that she will make a difference in the lives of others. As Audrey said, "When you've benefitted from good mentoring you feel obligated to share that experience with someone else. When you've been given that gift you need to pass that gift along. To just keep the gift would be terribly selfish." This metaphor of mentoring as a gift is similar to Gehrke's (1988) insights when speaking of mentoring as "gift giving." It is also consistent with the idea proposed by Funk and Kochan (1999) that those who have been mentored should "pass it on." As practicing educators, it is important to us to help develop exemplary qualities in future educators as we "pass it on." Our mentees are people who may well be our colleagues one day.

Important Qualities in a Mentor

Research indicates that the qualities desired of a mentor vary and depend on the type of mentoring relationship and the purposes for the mentoring. Williams and Blackburn (1988) as cited in Perna and Lerner (1995) suggest that there are four mentorship types including role-specific modeling/teaching, encouraging, organizational socialization, and advocate. Our mentoring relationships included some aspects of all four of these. We developed friendships, offered future career guidance, served as a source of information, and advocated for our mentees. For example, several members of the Student Council had the opportunity to attend a state-wide Parent Teacher Organization conference with Audrey and several faculty members from the College of Education. Of this Cindy said, "Both Audrey and I were at the conference to learn new strategies. It really made me more comfortable. It gave us a chance to meet in the middle because both of us were learning together."

Goodwin and his coauthors (1998) found that mutual respect, accessibility of the mentor, caring, intellectual compatibility, and values compatibility are important elements in a mentoring relationship. These were characteristics that rang true for us. "The more we worked with our mentees the better we got to know them. We grew to respect them both as people and as leaders" (Cynthia). Additionally, Goodwin et al. (1998) found that voluntary mentoring relationships were more effective than imposed ones. Trust is key to a good mentoring relationship. Simply matching people and calling one of them a mentor does not mean that a "true developmental and supportive relationship exists" (Daresh, 1995, p. 9). As Audrey

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said, "If you can't openly communicate with your mentor, then it's not really a mentoring relationship." As we reflected on the qualities of good mentors, we agreed that mentors should be approachable, well spoken, and organized. It has been important for each of us to see our mentor's "human side" as well as to interact with them on a professional level.

From our perspective, mentors "volunteer" you. They see situations that might help you to grow and facilitate your involvement in those situations. "I could tell that Dr. Reed had faith in our abilities," said Tasha "when she volunteered us to do an important project for the Boys and Girls Club." Yet, we know that good mentors are concerned about your protection. Stated Cindy, "Mentors often act as filters of information, sorting and directing the flow of leadership opportunities. This helps to keep one leader from having to do everything while also making sure that others have opportunities, too."

These findings are consistent with those of Wasden who stated,

> The mentor is a master at providing opportunities for the growth of others, by identifying situations and events which contribute knowledge and experience to the life of the steward. Opportunities are not happenstance; they must be thoughtfully designed and organized into a logical sequence. Sometimes hazards are attached to opportunity. The mentor takes great pains to help the steward recognize and negotiate dangerous situations. In doing this, the mentor has an opportunity for growth through service, which is the highest form of leadership" (Wasden, p. 3 as cited by Daresh, 1995).

Mentors support you and hold you accountable. We found that, in many ways, being a mentor is like being a parent. There is a continual balancing act between encouraging the mentee to engage in risk-taking, service, and practice while at the same time watching carefully as events unfold, making sure that mentees do themselves or others no irreparable harm. As Audrey said, having a mentor is "sort of like having a parent with expectations. You want to please your parents or your mentor, and that means doing your very best." When Cynthia described her relationship with one of her mentors, a senior faculty member at her institution, she said, "Its not so much that she pushes me, but she opens doors and windows for me, and creates situations for me where I can go and fly on my own. When she has opened a window, I know that it is a direction that I am ready to fly in." In this way, mentors help us to see our own possibilities, instilling greater confidence in us because we trust their judgment.

Skills Acquired

Mentoring is an important activity, very appropriate for adult learners, because it fosters a "holistic and highly individualized approach" to learn-

ing new skills and concepts important for one's personal and/or professional development (Daresh, 1995, p. 8). Remarked Audrey, "You need a mentor for professional and educational purposes." We found that the skills learned in our mentoring situations included planning, problem solving, improved critical thinking, strategies to foster cooperation, communication skills, skills in leading a meeting, and ways to facilitate teamwork.

Mentors can teach you how to be more task-oriented, and how to follow through on an idea. This was something that Tasha valued as she considered what she had learned through mentoring. "It was helpful for me to be able to develop an agenda for a meeting then bring it back to you for feedback," she said. Further, she felt that mentoring helped her learn "how to anticipate loose ends" when working on a large project. (Mentoring helped me to be) "able to see how to handle a situation, just [having] the guidance there. Being able to go to the mentor if I had a question, being able to take it to someone who either has the answer or knows where to direct me for the answer." Cindy revealed that mentoring had given her the opportunity to "try something new and learn that you like it." For example, when describing her role alongside Cynthia when conducting a team building workshop at a local school, Cindy said, "It was helpful to jointly conduct a professional development session with you. I could see what you did then model my teaching after yours." As we conversed, we realized that we were feeding off each other's ideas, something that we had experienced before many times in our mentoring relationships.

We also agreed with the insights of Kochan and Trimble (2000) and found that mentoring helped us understand the complexity of situations and provided each of us with opportunities for the practice, feedback, and reflection we needed to grow and learn. Tasha stated it this way, "We were fortunate to have an outlet like Student Council within our mentoring relationship. It gave us the opportunity to try new things, get feedback, reflect, then try again."

Application of Skills to Future Roles

Tasha and Cindy will be teacher leaders someday. As their mentors, Cynthia and Audrey feel a sense of responsibility to make sure that they have the experiences and opportunities for growth that will prepare them for their current and future roles. Therefore, we thought that our mentoring relationships should have some focus on issues of teaching and learning. As Audrey states, "As a mentor I take my role seriously. My mentee's success is as much a reflection of my leadership skills as it is hers" Our view is consistent with the notion that "Mentors should serve as mediators on behalf of novices at any time that beginning teachers need support, encouragement, or guidance" (Klausmeier, 1994, p. 29).

When considering how to allow our mentees to gain the skills they needed to be independent teachers in the future, we found that learning to let go was a common theme for us. As Cynthia remarked,

> It's real hard to learn how to let go and let other people do things and to build that trust with people, even though you know they'll do things well. It may not be exactly the way you would do it, but they're going to do a great job and you need to let them go with it, and that's a tough lesson to learn.

Tasha expressed similar sentiments when contemplating her role the following year, as she would no longer be president of the Student Council. "This has taught me not to try to do everything by myself, to have faith in the people that are Student Council officers. [I need to] trust that they're going to fulfill their responsibility as well" (Tasha).

Perseverance is an important quality in educators. Our mentoring relationships helped to sustain our work even when it felt overwhelming. "For example," said Cindy "with the newsletter, the thing was that at first I didn't even know what to do. With the help of my mentors I was able to figure out how to get organized and accomplish this overwhelming task." When describing the work involved in planning for the "Team Up for Education" project, Tasha responded, "At every step we took there was an obstacle to overcome, and some were really big. But with cooperation from everyone, and Audrey's guidance, we just kept pushing forward and it was a successful event..."

When asked her how she thought such experiences would help her in the classroom Tasha replied,

> Moving forward and not giving up (is an important lesson). As a teacher I will need resources and I have been thinking about how our little organization did something for all of the schools. I have the advantage of knowing how to go to organizations that have a heart for students and for the community and ask for their help. I now have the confidence and planning skills, to try to be creative in everything that I do.

As we continued our reflective dialogue, we found that lifelong learning was another outcome from mentoring that would apply to the teacher careers of our mentors and to our own professional lives. We think Audrey described it best when she said,

> There's always going to be somebody who can teach you something that you don't know. Often they are able to shine a light on pathways that you didn't even know existed. So the other part of the mentor-mentee relationship is having somebody there, who is willing to help you pick up the pieces.

Changing Roles, Relationships, and Responsibilities

As we reflected on the strengths of our mentoring relationships, we were struck by the systemic support within our organization and the influence that this support has had on our ability to work together collaboratively. We are very fortunate to have an institutional culture that fosters collaborative mentoring relationships. For example, our former Dean in the College of Education made himself very available to junior and senior faculty members, graduate students, and to preservice teacher leaders who were members of the Student Council. We were able to learn new ways of operating, as well as to understand the complexities of various situations by watching him in action and engaging in dialogues with him that helped us to better understand what was occurring. Student leaders were able to clearly see the value of this indirect support as it flowed from the former Dean to faculty to graduate students and to them. Tasha describes it in this way, "The indirect and direct support of Dean Kunkel, specifically his enthusiasm about talking to us about issues in our College and his pride in our accomplishments and goals were inspirational and rewarding."

As mentors we have struggled with learning to let go and consequently our roles have, and will continue to, change. This insight is consistent with the idea that there will be changing learning needs at various times in a person's career (Daresh, 1995). Our relationships have changed, too. As Cynthia remarked, "Once you get past a certain point it becomes a reciprocal rather than a top-down relationship." This is consistent with what others have found (Merriam, 1983). "(Our) associations with mentors became closer, more trusting, and less formal as we engaged in sharing problems, tasks, and ourselves" (Funk & Kochan, 1999, p. 97). We have in many ways become co-mentors. Co-mentoring evolves through authentic collaboration and implies that everyone is valued (Bona, Rinehart, & Volbrecht, 1995, p. 119). As Cindy said, "We developed a 'shared brain'." This is similar to the findings of Kochan (1999). It was interesting to us to see how much our experiences were in line with other research on informal mentoring.

We have learned more about issues of respect. Audrey discovered this as she struggled with some of the decisions our mentees made. She shared, "The longer you've lived, the more you experience. So you watch younger people go through things and you think why are you doing that. They're wasting their time, they should be doing this..." Learning to trust our mentees to find their own way, and knowing that they have the needed skills and judgment to make good decisions, has been a difficult yet rewarding process. In this way, serving as mentors has helped us to grow. Cynthia, discussing this issue states, "Mentoring offers an opportunity to be more reflective about my own actions and reactions and thus, facilitates my own development." This finding is consistent with Kaye's (2000) insights, "I

have come to recognize just how much of my own development has depended on those whom I have mentored" (p. A68).

We have approached our work in a collaborative manner. One relationship began as formal mentoring (Cynthia-Audrey), but quickly became collaborative and co-mentoring. The other mentoring relationships " simply happened." Tasha and Cindy's mentoring was primarily informal, except when it came to specific projects where Cynthia and/or Audrey served as a more formal mentor throughout the life of that project. Then things returned to an informal relationship. In this way, our relationships were fluid, changing to meet the needs of the tasks at hand.

Finally, we contemplated the responsibilities of the mentee. The primary theme that emerged was a willingness to get involved and take risks to grow and learn. Tasha frames it as "doing my best and having the courage to ask questions that I have and sharing ideas." Audrey says it is the willingness "to take that plunge when others may not. It's a risk taking venture." We believe, as do others, that when one is mentored, there is a responsibility to do your best and give your best. Typically, those who have been mentored end up mentoring others (Daresh, 1995). Cindy expressed this notion when she said, "I see this as very true in my teaching. I hope to inspire my students to eventually become teachers and mentors themselves." We found that each of us have very strong beliefs that it is our obligation to mentor others.

SUMMARY

As we considered our experiences and the insights gained through our interactions, each of us became more intentional and reflective about our practices. Our mentoring relationships are complex and reciprocal. All of of us learn from one another.

Each of us has strong personality traits. Our mentors were selected for these traits and, interestingly, each mentor felt that their mentees also exhibited those traits. This suggests a question similar to that raised by Kochan and Funk (2000): Do mentees seek out mentors who are like themselves and have similar personal traits? If so, is this the best way to learn and grow? Our experience suggests that we selected mentors with similar characteristics and that it has been beneficial for us.

Mentoring benefits the mentor as well as the mentee. The mentoring relationship provides satisfaction as we see growth in the mentee. The mentee benefits by learning new and diverse perspectives and approaches for doing things. Consistent with Zachary's research (as cited in Wall, 2000), these insights benefit the organization as a whole. Certainly, the Student Council was much stronger and attempted more innovative and com-

plex undertakings because of our mentoring relationships and the support that they gave us.

While engaged in mentoring relationships, we have learned what works, what is useful, and what is not. We believe that the best mentors are mentees themselves, which is also consistent with the work of Zachary (as cited in Wall, 2000). Each of us continues to push ourselves and each other, attempting to be the best that we can become. We view our mentoring relationships with one another, across positional and generational lines as not only avenues of personal growth, but as the creation of a "legacy of care" that we hope will continue to impact our lives and the lives of others as we seek to mentor and be mentored, to teach and to learn, to care about and to be cared for. For, in the final analysis, we have come to understand that it is in this caring that the essence of mentoring resides.

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SECTION III

MENTORING TEACHERS AND ADMINISTRATORS

Frances K. Kochan

Section III changes the perspective of mentoring students to mentoring teachers and administrators. Four of the chapters deal with mentoring new teachers as a part of their induction into the profession. One chapter details programs that involve mentoring aspiring and practicing school principals. The first three chapters deal with mentoring at the organizational level. The last two chapters examine mentoring as a human experience.

These chapters examine the need for socialization into the workplace of the school and into the role one is expected to fulfill in it. These authors add much substance to the notion previously introduced regarding mentoring as a transformative process for the mentor and the mentee and as a tool to enable educators to help transform the organization and their roles within it.

TRANSFORMATIONAL LEARNING THROUGH MENTORING IN EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION: THE DART MODEL

Arlene Martin's chapter describes a statewide mentoring program to bring about transformation, but in a different context from that contained in the previous chapter. The program was developed primarily to improve the practice of early childhood teachers and the quality of care in childcare centers in New Jersey. The focus of this initiative is on fostering master teachers' abilities to support novice teachers. Dr. Martin offers a comprehensive view of program attributes and describes how one might use them

not only to develop strong mentoring programs in early childhood education, but also to enhance graduate education and to prepare for organizational accreditation. She emphasizes that organizational mentoring programs must consider the entire context in which they must function, including state policies, site-specific operations and culture, and the professional development of all involved. Her description of the application of concepts within the mentoring program to accreditation processes is an interesting approach that should stimulate ideas as others consider similar or differing activities.

THE MISSOURI TEACHERS' ACADEMY: MENTORING FOR ORGANIZATIONAL AND PERSONAL TRANSFORMATION

We continue our journey into the world of mentoring teachers with Kathleen Sullivan-Brown's examination of a statewide mentoring program for beginning teachers: the Missouri Teacher Academy. The program is intended not only to socialize teachers into the school setting as it exists, but also to change relationships and practices in those schools. The chapter describes an innovative context in which to examine the issues involved in mentoring new teachers. Dr. Sullivan-Brown presents some challenges for those who seek not only to induct teachers into the culture of schooling, but also to enable them to become change agents to enhance and improve that environment.

MENTORING LEADERS: SOME REFLECTIONS ON THE EXPERIENCE

Zellner and Erlandson move the focus of mentoring from the new teacher to those aspiring to the principalship. Their descriptions of two successful programs that provide numerous experiences and a system of support for those hoping to enter the principalship are well detailed and present some meaningful lessons for others to consider. The section of the chapter dealing with a mentoring program for principals who have been successful change agents in their schools, continues the thread of thought begun in the previous chapters which emphasizes the need to use mentoring not simply as a process to maintain organizations and people as they are, but to transform them into what they might be.

MENTORING OF TEACHERS: FOUR CASE STUDIES

Susan Tauer examines the induction of new teachers through mentoring by studying it at a more micro-level that the previous authors. Dr. Tauer

investigates the relationships between mentors and novices through four case studies. Her findings reinforce the importance of mutual trust, caring, and respect as prerequisites for successful mentoring relationships. Her chapter puts the human dimension center stage within the organizational desire to support and assist beginning teachers as they enter their profession. The variety of experiences presented, both positive and negative, provide comprehensive insights into the complexities of mentoring and the many elements that must be considered to make it a successful endeavor.

MENTORING AND TEACHER INDUCTION: HEARING THE VOICES OF CHANGE

In the concluding chapter of this section, Arlene Martin changes her perspective from the organizational to the personal as she unites her voice with mentor/protégé pairs of teachers to explore mentoring experiences. The struggles and the successes, the joys and the conflicts within these relationships ring through as each conversation unfolds. The impact of these relationships on the personal and professional lives of those involved speaks powerfully about mentoring as a relational endeavor.

CHAPTER 9

TRANSFORMATIONAL LEARNING THROUGH MENTORING IN EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION The DART Model

Arlene Martin

INTRODUCTION

Drawing the best and the brightest teacher candidates to the field of education has proven to be a national challenge for teacher preparation programs in higher education and for schools. Current beginning teacher research (Feinman-Nemser & Beasley, 1997; Haselkorn & Fidler, 1996) points to mentoring as an effective strategy in efforts to recruit and retain new and beginning teachers. Some states, such as New Jersey, mandate mentoring of provisional teachers in order for them to qualify for a permanent teaching certificate. Other efforts link mentoring to developing new teachers by pairing mentor teachers (experienced or master teachers) with education majors during their undergraduate preparation through school/university partnerships (Bey & Holmes, 1990).

Professionalization and upgrading the quality of care within the early care and education settings in New Jersey was mandated in 1998 by the Abbott New Jersey Supreme court decision requiring that funding for services of preschool children ages three and four in 30 at-risk school districts

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be fully implemented by 2004. Mentoring of these newly certified early childhood teachers is required to meet this mandate.

This chapter addresses a mentoring model designed to meet this mandate. The purpose of the model is to enhance the skills and abilities of those teachers who serve as mentors and to assist them in supporting novice teachers in early care and education settings The overarching purpose of the program is to improve the practice of early childhood teachers and the quality of care and education across childcare centers in New Jersey.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Skilled mentors offer novice teachers "gifts of wisdom" (Gherke, 1988) and expertise to expand their knowledge base, increases their instructional strategies, and promote effective interpersonal skills. Induction programs for the novice teacher that provide a mentoring focus may fall short of their anticipated outcomes toward retention of new teachers when such programs do not contain the central elements of successful mentor models. Among the most important elements of successful mentoring programs is having guidelines for program quality.

Another essential often-neglected attribute is preparing and training the mentors. Expertise as a teacher and longevity in the field of education do not ensure success as a mentor (Feinman-Nemser, 1992; Feinman-Nemser & Beasley, 1997; Odell, 1990; Odell & Ferraro, 1992). Mentors need to be trained for this role. In addition to this training, those developing mentoring programs must assure that mentors and mentees have adequate time to meet, that they meet on some type of consistent, regular basis, that there relationship is a collaborative one, and that reflection is built into the mentoring process (Fenichel, 1992).

The role of the mentor implies expertise in knowledge, skills, and effective communication, but it also implies that the mentor will provide psychological and social support for the novice teacher. As mentor teachers assist new teachers in becoming more proficient in the art and practice of teaching, these novice teachers gain increased confidence and enhanced self-esteem. Thus, mentors provide important psychosocial functions for the novice teachers (Bey & Holmes, 1990). The psychosocial nature, or even the spiritual aspect (Martin, 1998), of the mentoring relationship distinguishes mentoring from other forms of helping relationships. The characteristic nature of mentoring as a caring, dynamic learning relationship makes it distinct from that of either a supervisory relationship or a student-teacher relationship. The difference lies in the reciprocal nature of the mentoring relationship, in which each member in the relationship gives and takes from the other in order to grow, to risk, and to change.

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Mentoring informs "best practice" when it provides opportunities to assist the novice to grow and change. Change is risk. Taking risks empowers one to see in new ways, to try new ideas, and to change one's vision. Vision change transforms, and the transformative process achieved through mentoring is defined as transformational learning (Martin, 1998; Cranton, 1994; Mezirow, 1991). Transformational learning, which may occur in the mentoring process, involves two dispositions within the practitioner (in this case, the novice-teacher): one of changed vision and the other of changed practice. At the heart of mentoring which can create such change is the quality of the relationship (Martin, 1998). In an authentic mentoring relationship, participants are capable of being transformed personally and professionally through risk-taking, empowerment and vision change. Though transformation does not occur within every mentoring relationship, the potential to transform is possible.

THE DART MENTOR TEACHER MODEL

The Center for Dissemination, Advocacy, Research, and Training, (DART), at Kean University was established in 1990 through the efforts of child care professionals in a statewide advocacy organization, the Coalition of Infant/Toddler Educators (CITE) and the faculty of the Department of Early Childhood & Family Studies at Kean University. The Department of Early Childhood and Family Studies at Kean University is the oldest and largest department of early childhood education in the state, preparing the largest number of early childhood teachers in New Jersey. One of its missions is to serve its diverse and multi-cultural population. It is one of the few programs in the nation that provides a child development emphasis beginning in infancy through adolescence in the preparation of early childhood teachers. Its teacher preparation program provides leadership in the direction of early care and education in the state.

The DART Center evolved in response to the need for a central clearinghouse for the state that could develop and deliver training to caregivers, teachers, and supervisors of programs for children from birth to three years. It also serves as an advocate for early childhood care, disseminates appropriate information, and conducts related research. As the emphasis for universal preschool care grows, the lack of resources and adequately prepared teachers of children from birth through age three is becoming more apparent and critical to the quality and education of children in non-familial care settings.

The Prudential Foundation, A.T.&T. Family Care Development Fund, and the Schumann Fund for New Jersey funded the DART Center and its initial training project for a three-year period beginning in 1990. Due to its success, the DART Mentor Teacher Model has been adapted and applied

in staff development programs beyond that three year period, including large early childhood centers, family child care programs, child care centers undergoing accreditation processes, and in the Kean University graduate program in early childhood education.

The DART Mentor Model Training Process

During the first year of the project, a Trainer of Trainers model was developed in which a Master Trainer disseminated content based on social interaction theories. The Director of the DART Center served as the Master Trainer in its initial year. During the three-year pilot project (1991–1994), the director identified expert field trainers, participating centers, and supervisors and implemented the training on a broader scale. Twelve child-care or family child care supervisors, typically staff holding a BA degree in early childhood education, participated in the training. The supervisors were paired with Field Trainers (mentor teachers) who were experienced infant/toddler supervisors of programs, many with Master's degrees in early childhood education. These mentor teachers were selected from a statewide advocacy organization, the Coalition of Infant/Toddler Educators (CITE). As advanced early childhood educators, they acted as mentors to the child care supervisors involved in the pilot program as well as within their own sites and also served as mentors to their staff.

The project served to train other site supervisors to improve the overall quality of care in their infant/toddler programs. Thirty-six supervisors (12 per year) took part in a comprehensive nine-month program, which included 60 hours of classroom seminars and 25 hours of a supervised field experience. Each supervisor was paired with a field trainer who was a mentor teacher. The mentor teacher/supervisor relationship was initially built into classroom seminars and furthered developed in the field experience, which included coaching and supervisory skill development.

The training model is composed of three strands: adult development, interactional dynamics, and mentoring/supervisory practices. Efforts to understand what works best in creating high quality environments for infants and toddlers to thrive must focus on the quality of interactions necessary to create these dynamic relations. The interactional processes of signaling, reciprocity, attunement, synchrony, and acknowledgment, taken from the work of Escalona, 1967; Mahler, 1974 Stern, 1987, and others form the theoretical base of the DART Mentor Teacher Model. This model promotes the concept of developmental supervision (Caruso & Fawcett, 1984) to provide the skills of listening, communication, and feedback.

It is noteworthy to mention that the same dynamic interactions used to create mentally healthy environments for young children, are seen in the work to create sensitive authentic supervisors who work with these children

(Escalona, 1967; Mahler, 1974; Stern, 1987). When practiced holistically, these processes create quality interactions between staff, adults and children, and adults and families. In centers where very young children, as young as infants, are housed in groups for longer than eight hours, quality interactions are crucial to overall mental health. Therefore, it is critical that staff recognize the importance of quality interaction. In the DART Mentor Teacher Model, master trainers demonstrated these interactional processes through biweekly seminars and in field sessions supervising their protégés. Through these experiences, supervisors were given the opportunity to gain knowledge and skills in:

- adult personality development and learning styles
- child development and appropriate childcare practices
- supervisory processes
- interactional dynamics as they define quality relationships.

DART Training Seminars

Seminars were held every other week followed by on-site supervisory mentoring on those weeks when classes were not conducted. Site seminars were held for three hours once a week and on-site visits for half-day sessions in the alternate weeks. Seminar classes were interactive and process-oriented. Time was allowed for new ideas to be absorbed and practiced and for the mentor relationship to grow. The goals of the project were to improve and increase the quality of care and education through improving the competency of the supervisors and practitioners in these childcare settings.

Teaching strategies were devised to match with adult learning principles and what constitutes "best practice" across a wide range of educational settings (Brookfield, 1986; Knowles; 1987; Merriam, 1983). The DART Mentor Teacher Training model respects the integrity of each participant,. It seeks to positively impact program and staff, and in turn to improve the quality of life for young children in childcare settings. Interaction is a dynamic, complex, give and take dialogue leading toward higher competence. Development occurred through transactions that were reciprocal, mutually beneficial, enjoyable and acknowledged.

The seminar series began with study of the concept of adult personality development that included use of the Myers-Briggs Personality Inventory, which was administered to each participant. An examination of the stages of adult and teacher development and adult learning styles followed. Assessment of the childcare center environment was emphasized. For this purpose, supervisors were taught to use the Infant/Toddler Environment Rating Scale or the Family Day Care Environment Rating Scale (Harms, Clifford & Cryer, 1989, 1990) and assessments were made of each childcare site.

The next sessions involved a study of interactional dynamics. The focus of these seminars was on relationships, particularly those related to infant/toddler development, the caregiver as curriculum, primary care giving, creative problem solving, and the relationship between the child and the family. The social-emotional life of the young child, as defined in interactional processes, was identified and discussed in the context of physical and intellectual development. In addition, two seminars used video analysis, role-playing, and modeling as sources for in-depth discussions.

Supervision, the third major strand of the training, is critical to the growth and development of competent staff. Good supervision is tranformative and models the interactional qualities of signaling, reciprocity, attunement, synchrony, and acknowledgment emphasized in this model (Restaino-Kelly & Handler, 1996). Three seminars were allocated to identifying the stages of developmental supervision, providing case examples, and practicing the specific steps involved in the mentoring process through role-playing.

Traditionally, supervision has not been taught systematically in early childhood staff training programs. Though there are many positive and supportive supervisors in early childhood settings, most are untrained. The predominant mode for learning about supervision is on-the-job experience, with novice teachers often mimicking the supervision styles which are modeled. Often teachers describe their supervision experience as negative and judgmental. This approach to training does not enable practitioners to grow professionally or to model "best practice." It may even deter growth. It also affords little opportunity for practical application and creates an unproductive relationship between supervisor and teaching staff.

The developmental supervision method adopted by the DART Mentor Teacher Model is based on a clinical supervision model, using interactional processes to promote collaboration and a non-judgmental approach (Caruso & Fawcett, 1986; Cogan, 1973; Glickman, 1990). Field trainers (mentors) met every other week with their site supervisor (protégé) to work through problem areas or weaknesses evident in their mentoring styles and assisted in developing an in-service staff development plan. The intent of the model was to provide an understanding of child development, to foster communication skills, and to enhance the professional development of the site supervisor through a focus on the mentor/teacher relationship.

Lessons Learned

The DART Mentor Teacher Model offered supervisors and directors of varied programs a means for professionalizing and "growing" staff (Jones, 1993). The strength of the relationships between the mentor teachers and the less experienced teachers has promoted powerful changes and pro-

vided valuable support for novice teachers. In addition, the DART Mentor Teacher Model has offered opportunities for both supervisors and practitioners to gain clarity in their professional goals, initiate reflective practice, and engage in collegial mentoring.

In a formal evaluation (Ferrar, 1994), directors, supervisors and mentors shared their stories of growth and success while they participated in the training project. These accounts indicated that staff at their sites had become more open to being supervised and mentored, and they felt more empowered as a result. Staff were included in the training process in a more authentic way. Directors reported on "changed" lives, not only from their staffs' perspectives, but from their own perceptions as well.

Interviews and surveys of participants conducted during this evaluation emphasized the strengths of the model based on the quality of their interpersonal relations. The greatest testimonies came from the participants themselves. Project participants offered statements of support regarding the impact on their level of personal and professional development of skills, understandings, and attitudes, saying: "The most important thing about DART (training) was that it gave me the confidence as a supervisor. I know I deal with staff conflicts [better] now" and "The strength of the program is the personal contact between the supervisor, field trainer, and the master trainer. It's like three people working together on a project."

The DART Mentor Teacher Model was conceived primarily to provide in-service training opportunities to staff in a variety of early childhood settings. In the first two years of the project, the mentor/teacher component emerged as the most unique and strongest feature of the model. A one-to-one formal relationship between the supervisor (protégé) and the field trainer (mentor) was confirmed as the essential element of the program. The match between pairs was based on similar interests, problem-solving skills, and communication styles. Benchmarks of progress (Ferrar, 1994) showed improvement in the areas of: communication skills, content dissemination, supervisor and staff interactions, and self-confidence in supervision skills.

Lessons learned from the DART Mentor Teacher pilot project identified the characteristic features of an effective in-service staff development model in early care and education as *time* to meet with the protégé, *regularity* in meeting to build a relationship, *reflection* to review and synthesize observations and feedback, and finally *collaboration* to provide meaning for both mentor and protégé in their on-going relationship. From the literature on mentoring and in piloting mentoring projects (Martin, 1998), it may be concluded that the following features are likely to ensure more successful mentoring relations:

- Having a seasoned "master teacher," preferably older than the protégé or novice teacher.

- Assuring that that "master teacher" works with the same grade level or children of a similar age.
- Including informal opportunities to meet a variety of mentor teachers.
- Providing short biographies of available mentors to novice teachers who are seeking mentor teachers.
- Including comprehensive training for all mentors prior to the mentoring program.
- Providing the elements of time, regularity, collaboration, and reflection to help mentors and protégés build and grow their relationships.

In thinking through the implementation of this mentoring program, we learned that it is useful to identify strong "master teachers" as mentors, to create a rationale for mentor/protégé matches, to set criteria for identifying both mentors and protégés, and to identify barriers or weaknesses ahead of time. These program features will promote a successful mentoring model. If viewed as a work in progress, mentoring offers significant opportunities for the program to grow and change even as novice teachers do. The nature of mentoring requires that risks must be taken and that evaluation of any program model be conducted to examine its strengths and weaknesses and to determine its level of effectiveness.

The struggle to refine format, content, delivery methods, and relationship issues must be worked through individually to address the needs of the agencies applying for training. The model has been modified from its initial conceptualization over the years to reflect the perceived needs of the participants, and continues to emerge, grow, and change. The model provides multiple opportunities for both supervisors and practitioners to gain clarity, initiate reflective practices, and engage in collegial supervision through an established mentoring support system.

The concept of transformation defined in Mezirow's work (1991) states that any change in meaning perspective (adult learning) that moves the learner to action is transformative. This concept is implicit in the mentoring relationship. The mentor's role enables and empowers the protégé to transform in a way, which mediates the risks involved in the process. Mentoring as a helping relationship is a support system. It forms the basis for exploring greater independence from childhood insecurity and growth into adulthood, leading one to professional development. Apart from the mother/infant dynamic, the transformational process in the mentoring relationship may constitute a uniquely powerful force in adult life. In this transactional process, the adult's search for meaning allows for the realization of one's identity, growth and ultimately transforms the adult's personal and professional "self."

By engaging in dialogue, setting tasks and exercises and creating dichotomies, the mentor challenges the protégé and forces a situation of cognitive dissonance and reflection. The protégé is enabled and empowered by

the experience, thus creating a new perspective and a new vision. Seeing the world through new eyes is a transformative process. Participants in the DART Mentor Teacher project experienced changes in their knowledge of development and understanding of teaching practices, self-confidence in their supervisory growth, greater willingness to collaborate in their supervision/staff interactions, improvement in the quality of supervisor/staff interactions, and an increase in their professional development due to the transformation of their self-perception related to changes in teacher development and teacher practice.

APPLICATIONS OF THE DART MENTOR TEACHER MODEL

Over the past ten years, the DART Mentor Teacher Model has been refined and revised as it has been adapted to fit the training needs of staff in multiple educational settings. The concept of the mentor teacher has been readily adaptable in support of professional development of staff as well as in program development. This section shows how the model and the role of the mentor teacher have been applied to support the training and professional growth of staff in educational settings, and how the model may also be applied to accreditation facilitation projects to assist educational programs in attaining accreditation.

Mentoring New Teachers in a Large Day Care Organization

Summit Child Care Centers (SCCC), a not-for-profit childcare agency that enrolls 1,200 children and employs a staff of 250, places staff development as a high priority. SCCC's on-going commitment to professional growth includes orientation programs, extensive on-site training, conferences, and tuition reimbursement for professional development activities. In New Jersey, as elsewhere, many childcare workers have a minimal foundation in child development and early childhood education. Thus, the emphasis of staff development at SCCC has been to develop the knowledge base of entry-level employees and to broaden and deepen the professionalism of experienced staff. Mentoring offered SCCC a means for promoting development and fostering motivation for all staff to remain in the field.

In collaboration with the DART Center at Kean University, Summit Child Care Centers sponsored an on-site Mentor Teacher Training program to assist experienced teachers who volunteered to serve as mentors to those who were less experienced. The mentor training served three purposes. First, it extended the training resources available to SCCC teachers by creating a network of trained mentors. Second, this training enhanced

the professionalism of the mentors and gave them a step forward in their professional career track. Third, having a core of certified teachers who were trained as mentors allowed SCCC to attract provisional candidates for state teacher certification. In New Jersey, all graduates of four-year education programs must complete a year of teaching in a provisional status before receiving permanent certification. Many seek initial employment in a childcare center that provides mentoring for full certification. The professional status of these individuals strengthens the overall credentials of SCCC staff. Decisions were made about how the program would be implemented in an on-site setting. The process for implementing a mentoring program in this multi-site agency is described below.

The first step in establishing a mentoring program was to provide on-site training for mentor teachers who were experienced teachers. This training occurred during twelve sessions conducted over a six-month period. It included group seminars and bi-weekly individual contact sessions between the mentor teachers and their protégés, who were novice teachers at SCCC. It emphasized frequency and regularity of contact, with an emphasis on application of new strategies.

The training, designed and delivered by the Director of the DART Center, emphasized reflection, collegiality, and the importance of allowing time for people to change. In order for the mentor teachers to share their reflections on the training process, sufficient time was allowed for discussion at each session. Mentor teachers also kept a journal that was reviewed by the instructor after each session. To develop a sense of collegiality, the mentor teachers had many opportunities for input into the design of the program during the early sessions. They also decided when and where the group would meet. The mentor teachers set their own objectives and their own pace for establishing a relationship with their protégés.

Working through issues regarding Center support for staff, to enable them to take the training, and defining roles and responsibilities helped clarify expectations for the new mentor teachers as they began their training experience. The content of the training for the mentor teachers had a dual focus: first, to build mentor/protégé relationships, and second to provide early childhood program content that would enhance all of the participants' understanding of child development and child care issues. The major goal of the content sessions was to bring all participants to a common standard of competence and to build their self-confidence in communicating on a professional level. The DART Mentor Teacher Model outlined 14 sessions to be conducted on a semester basis, so that the training could translate into a 3-credit undergraduate or graduate course on mentoring. To fit SCCC's time schedule, 12 of the 14 sessions were identified for training in a six month period.

Selection of the mentor teacher participants was based on criteria set by the education coordinator and based on at least three years of classroom experience and Lead Teacher status, given the specific make-up of their

child care staff. Once the criteria for participants were set, a recruitment flyer, which described the DART Mentor Teacher training was sent to 45 eligible employees. Mentor teacher candidates were invited to an introductory session. Twenty-five staff members attended. After this session, applications were distributed. Fourteen people applied, of whom 12 were accepted and completed the program. The participating mentor teachers had a range of 3-40 years of educational experience in the field.

Because of the size of SCCC's programs, it was possible to match mentors with protégés working at the same childcare center. Proximity facilitated opportunities for these teams to have regular contact. In delineating criteria for choosing protégés from eligible staff, SCCC decided to involve the mentor teachers in the selection process. Criteria set for protégé candidates included: having less than two years with SCCC, working with a similar age group as the mentor; working at the same center, and not being in the same classroom as the mentor. A joint meeting of mentor teachers and protégé candidates was held to encourage the mentor match, to answer questions, and to explain the program goals and activities. At that joint meeting dyads were formed based on a natural selection process. A training was held on classroom observation and dyads learned to use the Early Childhood Environment Rating Scale (ECERS) or the Infant/Toddler Environment Rating Scale (ITERS) (Harms, Clifford & Cryer, 1980, 1990). The mentor/protégé dyads left the meeting with their first assignment, which was to evaluate the protégé's classrooms using the ECERS or the ITERS.

The final challenge in this training as a staff development initiative, was to create compensation for mentor and protégé participation as well as to recognize their efforts and successes. In line with existing staff development requirements, this training was designated as credit toward a required 20 hours of annual training. Participants were given release time from their classroom during work hours for teams to meet. A certificate of completion from the DART Center was awarded to participants, and mentors of provisional teaching candidates received a stipend of several hundred dollars for the school year. Sources of additional mentor compensation continue to be explored. SCCC has since institutionalized their mentor program by providing stipends to mentor teachers who agree to work with newly hired teachers.

A Mentoring Program for a Network of Home Day Care Providers

The previous section described the application of the DART Mentor Teacher Model in a very large, multi-service agency. This section is devoted to an examination of an alternative approach, using similar objectives but different methods of implementation, which was used by a non-traditional

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organization, a large family child care agency that works with individual business owners who provide child care services in their homes.

Monday Morning, Inc. is a family childcare management service. A private network of over 200 childcare providers in New Jersey are currently listed through Monday Morning. Working through the network, these providers have the benefit of a support service, which includes insurance, equipment, technical assistance, and training. One of the most popular mainstays of the support system is the personal contact between providers, office directors, and staff. Regular on-site visits are an opportunity to share ideas and gain insight and training from the provider director, while at the same time safeguarding the high standards of quality care that Monday Morning has maintained since its inception.

In keeping with a philosophy of support for providers, both within the Monday Morning network and in the field of family childcare in general, it was natural to look at mentoring as an opportunity to enhance the quality of care. There was also a need at Monday Morning to create an opportunity for "Master Providers" to receive recognition for their valuable expertise, and for them to share their knowledge with providers just entering the field. Having worked with the DART Center's Mentor Teacher project for over two years, it was natural for Monday Morning to establish a Mentor Teacher Training Program. The reasons for initiating a formal mentoring program were:

- To offer experienced veteran providers a professional development opportunity to share their expertise and gain increased recognition and compensation, resulting in retention in the field.
- To train and support new providers who need to renew interest and enhance practice with children (Family childcare studies have shown that providers learn best from other providers, such as mentors).
- To begin a program which could be duplicated throughout Monday Morning Moms nationwide, and enhance the current method of provider visits.
- To create a mentoring program that could be adapted for use by the family childcare profession.

Initiation of a mentor/teacher program in Monday Morning, Inc. proved to be challenging because of the nature of the organization and the time constraints imposed on family care providers whose businesses are in their homes. An advisory committee was established to address the issues and concerns that participants had and to facilitate the actual program implementation. The schedule for training was designed over a four-month period. Full day training sessions were held on Saturdays, with four mentor field visits occurring between seminars. A fifth visit included working together at the mentor's worksite, so the novice provider could see the childcare environment first hand and observe the interactions of

an established childcare home. The content of training was adapted to address the special environmental needs of providers serving children in their home settings versus an institutional educational setting. Mentors also kept an on-going journal of the experience. As a final component, all the directors of Monday Morning, Inc. offices volunteered to attend as many workshops as possible in order to be fully conversant with the program. Videos of each workshop were also available to any provider in the network.

Mentor selection and the matching process were designed through the Monday Morning Advisory Committee and the DART staff. Criteria for mentor eligibility included three years of experience in child care, demonstrated leadership and communication skills, a willingness to work closely with a beginning provider over the months of training, a commitment to the Monday Morning, Inc. philosophy, and completion of all phases of the program. Each mentor candidate submitted a written application. Mentors were matched with protégés primarily by geographical location, although an effort was also made to arrange partnerships in which personalities would be compatible.

Benefits and rewards to the mentor for participation were identified as self-growth and personal and professional development as candidates engaged in further educational opportunities, such as completion of college degrees or professional credentials in the field, as well as graduate degrees. Mentees in the training project accrued 20 hours of training credit. Many of the credit hours could be used toward other professional credentials. Monday Morning, Inc. provided a stipend to all mentors for their site visits.

To date, the Mentor Teacher Training appears to be successful. Mentors have reported that the experience has been meaningful for both themselves and their protégés. Results from the Family Day Care Environment Rating Scale (Harms, Clifford & Cryer, 1980) have shown improvements in the areas of language, interaction, and curriculum. Mentors view their role as a new career opportunity in their professional development progression. Monday Morning, Inc. has decided to continue to assign mentors to new providers. Follow-up seminars are planned, and the program will be reviewed for inclusion in Monday Morning Moms nationwide.

A Mentoring Program for Graduate Students in Early Childhood and Family Studies

A further application of the DART Mentor Teacher Model is the evolution of a mentoring program for Master of Arts candidates in the Department of Early Childhood and Family Studies at Kean University in New Jersey. This involves a plan for mentoring, which assists students in com-

pleting their program of studies and engages them in transformative processes that support personal and professional development and change. It also demonstrates how the fundamental principles of the DART Mentor Teacher Model can be adapted to an advanced early childhood program.

Mentoring as a support system appears to be a natural fit for the prevention of isolation, competition, and individualism frequently found in graduate school. The graduate coordinator's goal for applying mentoring in the early childhood master's program at Kean University forced her to re-examine her understanding of the mentoring process. She was aware of mentoring partnerships that feature dyads of mentor and protégé, but she questioned whether there were alternative configurations. This led her to wonder whether she could be considered a mentor in her role as graduate coordinator, and whether groups of students working together could constitute a mentoring relationship.

Her work was guided by the framework offered by Hughley (1997). The author acknowledges the traditional definition of mentoring but moves toward a "circle of one-to-many" or "many-to-one" (103). Mentoring to include a greater number of participants, creates a context in which all parties learn from each other and promote change. A mentoring group facilitates personal and professional growth, with the roles of mentor and protégé shared among its members (Ashelman, 1999, p. 75).

Cox (1997) further refines the concept of mentoring at the graduate level by noting that a mentor should serve as a "sounding board," who offers multiple points of view. The protégé should have "the freedom to use, adapt, or discard the mentor's advice at all times" (p. 84). Cox's construct is especially appropriate for master's students in early childhood education. The field of early childhood education requires a respect of individual differences while at the same time facilitating the development of autonomy, and provides support for advocates who question individual differences. Mentors need to be intrinsically motivated to invest in something of themselves in an effort to develop their protégés sense of belonging to the profession of teaching (Stansell, 1997). This view is consistent with Mezirow's paradigm of transformational learning described earlier in this chapter. In this way, mentoring supports the goals and purpose of the graduate program in the Department of Early Childhood and Family Studies at Kean University.

Informal mentoring has typically occurred throughout the graduate studies program. The graduate coordinator continued to search for ways to facilitate mentoring processes among graduate students. The idea of enlisting graduate alumni of the masters program was proposed and it became the central focus for a formal mentoring program designed to extend opportunities for all students to be mentored. Initial meetings were held in the first course graduate students encounter, Foundations of Early Childhood Education. Orientation to mentoring and facilitation of the mentor/protégé match was initiated in these beginning meetings. The

graduate coordinator believed that more formal opportunities to meet by offering the dyads workshops and collaborative projects that required mentor/protégé interactions, was a strategy that would facilitate relationship building. Mentors were asked to work with protégés on specific assignments, such as field observations, development of a portfolio, and a documentation project.

A final component of mentoring in the early childhood graduate program was the development of a new graduate course entitled Mentoring in Early Childhood Settings. It is offered as an option in the program Administration in Early Childhood Settings. The purpose of the course is to encourage the formal mentoring of graduate students, to train graduate students to become mentors in their own work settings as teachers, directors and supervisors, and to develop the skills of individuals who serve as alumni mentors. Course content, which is taken partially from the DART Mentor Teacher Curriculum described earlier in this chapter, is based on adult development, developmental supervision, and transformational learning. This course offers practical information and strategies for integrating mentoring into students' work settings. Through discussion, role playing, and a guided mentoring assignment, students learn the roles of mentor and protégé. The course offers opportunities to develop mentoring skills, to grow professionally as mentors, and to be mentored by alumni of the program.

The Department of Early Childhood and Family Studies mentoring program is a work in progress. It will take additional time and effort to develop a model that serves all students. At this point, informal and formal mentoring is available to interested students, and the mentoring program has become a strong commitment for some of the department's faculty. The primary goal of the mentoring program is to support growth and change that leads to transformation at the personal and professional level.

Mentoring in Program Accreditation

The last profile in this chapter looks at the use of mentoring as a technical assistance tool in the role of program accreditation for agencies and diverse child care and family child care settings. The process of program accreditation is rigorous and complex. There are five national accrediting bodies in early childhood care and education, which include:

- National Early Childhood Professional Accreditation (NECPA), which is linked to the National Child Care Association
- National Academy of Early Childhood Programs (NAECP), an arm of the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC)
- National Association of Family Child Care (NAFCC)

- Council on Accreditation of Services to Families and Children (COA)
- National School Age Child Care Alliance (SACC)

Obtaining accreditation from one of these organizations requires a strong commitment from child care center boards, administrators, staff and parents. The barriers that most often prevent the attainment of program accreditation include: time, cost, demand for resources, staff/parent involvement, and administrative need for support in the process. In New Jersey, only 159 of the over 4,000 licensed child care centers are accredited by one of these bodies. Using the DART Mentor Teacher Model to aid programs in this process, DART Mentor/Teacher consultants assist the center director in all aspects of the process, from the starting point of understanding the application process to conducting the readiness survey and developing a plan for moving the center or agency through the entire accreditation process. The mentor/teacher consultant asks, "What does the center need in order to get through an accreditation process, in the areas of environment, curriculum, planning, and quality of interactions?" To answer these questions, the mentor/teacher consultant initially spends time in classrooms, viewing the environments in ways that are similar to a validator's observation visits. In the next step in this process, the mentor teacher consultant develops a plan for the center and explains the steps of the accreditation process to center administration. These steps include the following:

- reviewing the accreditation manual and application process with the Director,
- reviewing and conducting a readiness survey,
- conducting a self-assessment review,
- assisting the director to develop a time line,
- conducting staff development needs and analysis studies,
- conducting environment observations,
- providing workshops for individuals or larger groups of staff,
- providing the director with support in improving policies and procedures,
- providing parent/board training sessions, and
- reviewing the entire program.

The mentor/teacher consultant functions primarily as a provider of technical assistance to center directors, but this person may also serve as a team builder to facilitate this process. While the Director manages daily operations and the overall program, the mentor/teacher consultant can identify staff members who can serve on a team that promotes the goals of accreditation. As a team, staff members can be charged with the tasks of:

- oversight for ensuring that environmental standards are met,
- assessing curriculum quality and developmentally appropriate practices in all classrooms,
- promoting health and safety standards, and
- assessing program management.

The tasks involved in program accreditation may seem overwhelming, but when shared among staff members, they become more manageable.

In pursuit of team-building, mentor/teacher consultants can assist staff in carrying out the work of:

- evaluating classrooms using the Early Childhood Environment Rating Scale (Harms, Clifford & Cryer, 1989, 1990),
- training staff in developmentally appropriate practices,
- training staff in talking about their programs in order to convey their understanding of developmentally appropriate practices to validators, and
- teaching staff to reflect on their changed practices that effect transformational learning in their personal and professional lives.

Finally, a major role that the mentor/teacher consultant plays is to lead staff development meetings to discuss the issues raised by the accreditation process. The DART mentor/teacher consultant leads sessions on topics that are relevant to the center's needs in this process, such as program management, curriculum, and quality interactions. Program directors who had been through the accreditation process with the support of a DART mentor/teacher consultant agreed that they achieved a better understanding of the procedures needed to attain accreditation when they had a mentor to assist them. They recognized that time and support in this process are the most significant features ensuring accreditation success.

CONCLUSION

Mentoring is a valuable strategy in the professional development of staff in education. It can be a significant tool for supporting and assisting new and beginning teachers and also can give renewal and rejuvenation to more experienced teachers (Arin-Krupp, 1985; Killian, 1990; Stevens, 1995). Though the mentoring programs described in this chapter are a recent phenomenon in education, they appear to be promising practices for the field. The invitation to improve teacher practice, to prepare better teachers, and to professionalize the field is open. The suggestions and experiences presented here provide an effective approach for training staff, offering opportunities to create dynamic, authentic, and transforma-

tive relationships through mentoring practices. Mentoring is a journey of transformational learning that we believe will lead to profound and lasting change. We are glad to be a part of the journey.

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CHAPTER 10

THE MISSOURI TEACHERS' ACADEMY Mentoring for Organizational and Personal Transformation

Kathleen Sullivan-Brown

This chapter presents an evolving definition of mentoring, its purposes and its enactment in a variety of diverse settings, including field-based or clinical programs and more traditional academic programs. In it I identify and describe four structural types of mentoring programs found in education and offer a conceptual framework for thinking about a new approach to individual and organizational mentoring. The concept of mentoring needs to become less "slippery" (Daloz, 1999, xi), and this conceptual framework may help by articulating some of the differences in the way the term is used in different places.

In today's increasingly diverse settings, educators and other professionals are being recruited to mentor novice teachers and graduate students across racial, ethnic, generational, linguistic, gender, age, and cultural lines. This diversity changes the nature of the type of mentoring relationships required. Mentors need to think deeply about "transformative mentorship" (Foster, 1986; Lambert, 1998), that is, mentoring that will lead to positive changes for the individual, for the organization or profession, and for the underrepresented groups in the profession. As transformative men-

tors, they must question their beliefs in and about mentoring, by asking questions such as:

- In which type of mentoring relationships does the mentor feel most competent?
- How might these types of mentoring approaches be combined and adapted to meet individual needs of both mentors and mentees?
- How does the mentor conceptualize his or her own role as a change agent?
- Are mentors seeking to reproduce the status quo (consciously or unconsciously) through a new generation of educators molded in their own professional image (Feiman-Nemser, Parker & Zeichner, 1993)?
- Can mentors use this role to bring about educational and societal changes in these diverse contexts (Cochran-Smith, 1991)?

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND THE OUTSTANDING SCHOOLS ACT

This chapter looks at mentoring programs and relationships that were and are intended to change the existing social and political relationships of students, teachers, preservice teachers and graduate students. The programs and models described here occurred in an environment of innovation in the state of Missouri as policy implementers were forced by the Outstanding Schools Act of 1993 (Missouri, 1993) to address the quality of schooling statewide. I served as a staff development professional involved in the design and implementation of mentor programs and mentor training programs for five years during this period of innovation in policy and practice in Missouri. As an external consultant, I mentored the mentors, collected and reviewed school district mentoring plans, and worked with individual teachers, teacher study groups, and administrators on professional development. Part of my role was to facilitate high-quality staff development for master teachers who in turn mentored other teachers in their buildings. I also participated in professional development school partnerships and the national Holmes Partnership, which features a premier mentoring program for minority scholars, the Holmes Scholars. Now in the role of teacher educator at a university, my action research on this topic has recently begun to include mentoring a cohort of doctoral students, which includes teachers, school administrators, and aspiring superintendents. This chapter incorporates the lessons learned from all these experiences during a period of rapid change in the professional development of educators in the state of Missouri.

The most significant and direct involvement I experienced with an articulated mentoring program was the Teachers' Academy of the Cooperating School Districts, a membership organization of school districts covering the eastern third of the state, some 20,000 teachers. The Academy evolved over a ten-year period (1990–2000) and continues as a mentoring program for experienced teachers in these urban, suburban, and rural school districts. Each year the 47 districts in the metropolitan region are invited to nominate an experienced teacher to participate in a long-term professional development process. Districts invest significant funding (approximately $1,500 per teacher) to support teachers within this group, with the expectation that their sponsored teacher or teachers will return to the district energized and current with new research on teaching and learning.

Approximately 20–25 teachers per year participate in the Teachers' Academy. Incentives for participation include admission to this select group by competitive application, 9 days of professional development leave, plus the chance to work with colleagues across districts. They meet once a month for 15 months, including the first summer, the school year, and a second summer to write up their action research projects. In these monthly sessions, they share readings and reflections on their own classroom practice. They interact with experts on brain research, character education, cooperative learning, multiple intelligence, and a wide variety of educational topics, who are brought in to lecture, demonstrate, and provide practice situations for these teacher leaders. Each teacher conducts an action research project guided by university-trained educational researchers. They share these action research projects in mini-conferences, printed reports, and online publications. They receive recognition in a graduation ceremony and banquet attended by their principals and families.

Academy graduates serve as a recruitment and screening committee and remain connected to the Teachers Academy through ongoing development of issues and professional development planning for the groups that follow them in the Academy. These program alumni also expand their leadership roles within their districts and become mentors to other teachers. The purpose of the Academy is not to take teacher-leaders out of the classroom, although in some cases the graduates do move into new roles within their districts. Some of these new positions are administrative roles, but more frequently these teacher-leaders help create new roles as teachers. New titles emerged as they became identified as teacher-leaders, master teachers, mentor teachers, instructional coordinators, and lead teachers. This is an especially important aspect of the Teachers' Academy because previously the only route to professional advancement for teachers had been to move into the administrative ranks. Thus, the Teachers' Academy led to new ways of thinking about instructional leadership.

The Teachers' Academy is also part of a larger network of professional development that includes a statewide Leadership Academy and local Principals' Academies. These groups are selective mentoring programs for cur-

rent principals and assistant principals who also spend a year or more engaged in professional conversations. These principals' groups are structured much like the Academy for teachers (monthly meetings, shared texts and lectures, action research) except the principals focus on the school site and the school as an organization instead of the teachers' more specific focus on individual classrooms and the teaching/learning process. A member of the Principal's Academy commented that the experience of being in the Principal's Academy was excellent although he wished the chance had come much earlier in his tenure as a principal when he needed more guidance. He believed that there are very few opportunities for new principals to be mentored.

Occasionally, the principals and teachers come together for cross-role conversations at statewide meetings. These cross-role conversations often lead to much greater understanding on the part of teachers and principals of the others' perspective toward teaching and learning, assessment, and other critical issues surrounding schooling. Teachers who are often reluctant to speak frankly with their own principal, who after all is also their evaluator, feel more free to explore differences in professional thinking with someone who is geographically far removed from their school on the other side of the state. For their part, the principals in these conversations often express surprise at the level of frustration voiced by the teachers.

In the state of Missouri, as a result of the 1993 legislation, teachers became far more invested in directing their own professional development process. Prior to 1993, administrators oversaw professional development. They chose the topics, speakers, and format of all teacher professional development activity. As a result of the 1993 Outstanding Schools Act, districts were required to set up Professional Development Committees (PDCs) made up of teachers in each school and to fund them with 1% of the school's budget. When the Leadership Academy and the Teachers' Academy participants came together for cross-role conversations, some significant differences emerged between these two groups as to what constituted "appropriate" professional development and mentoring of beginning, mid-career, and experienced teachers. Members of the Teachers' Academy had experienced a strong mentoring program and were ready to help school administrators create more such programs within their home districts.

The history and development of the Teachers' Academy led to an increased awareness of the role of mentoring on the part of the professional development community in St. Louis. Mentoring programs were, by law, required in each district, but their structure, quality and philosophy were "all over the map." The rapidly growing professional development community brought new thinking and strategies to these efforts. The following analysis explains the most common forms of mentoring programs encountered in this time period.

TYPES OF MENTORING

Assigned Mentoring

The first type of mentoring, which the author refers to as "assigned mentoring," occurs in clinical programs for preservice teachers and induction programs for first-year teachers. These are found in most school district mentoring programs (Feiman-Nemser & Parker, 1993) and require a relatively short-term relationship, with intermittent contact and a generally positive rapport between the two individuals concerned. This was by far the most common form of mentoring program found in local school districts. Often the purpose of assigned mentor programs is to meet a basic legal obligation, imposed by the state department of education as it was in Missouri. In too many of these cases, the mentoring programs are an afterthought, another "top-down" mandate. Mentors are required to "meet" with the mentee for some prescribed number of times throughout the academic year. These meetings may be minimal in terms of time and sharing of experiences. In a survey of 201 teachers, Wilkinson (1997) found that new teachers were not satisfied with their mentoring experiences. They indicated a need for help with decision-making, assistance with teaching responsibilities, input into their own professional development or an individualized professional development plan, and basic orientation to logistics of the school.

Unfortunately, too many school-based mentoring programs offer only the orientation component. They involve more orientation than real professional mentoring about teaching, ethics, or decision-making. Orientation is distinguished from mentoring in the following ways:

- *Orientation* is the process of making the employee familiar with the organization, its rules and procedures. These topics are logistical and management-type functions such as how to use the copier, order supplies, or navigate the bureaucracy. Almost any well-informed member of the organization can carry out orientation.
- *Professional mentoring*, on the other hand, has a much more philosophical approach and metacognitive objective because through this process the mentor instills professionalism and shared vision, moving far beyond the more mundane day-to-day survival skills of an orientation program. Professional mentoring, to paraphrase John Dewey, means growth.

An official mentor relationship of the type found in an assigned mentor program might span the course of a semester, an academic year, or, more rarely, the first two years of teaching. However, the amount of time in actual contact with one another may be quite brief for teacher-mentors

and first-year teacher mentees. In some school districts, new teachers have reported that they hesitate to ask too many "dumb" questions of their mentor teachers. As novice teachers, they feel that showing uncertainty or vulnerability to their mentor will be held against them at evaluation time. These teachers seek advice and support from outside the school, or they avail themselves of only the bare minimum of professional support. Thus, as earlier in this article the distinction was made between mentoring and orientation, it is also important to distinguish mentoring from formal, official, or summative evaluation. The trust relationship necessary to make mentoring successful is put at risk if the mentor is also in a summative evaluation role with the mentee. Mentoring does require informal evaluation or formative evaluation, but there must be a careful separation of the summative decisions for hiring, firing, and promoting and the formative process of guidance, development, and mentoring.

Group Mentoring

A second structural form of mentoring that the author has observed is "group mentoring." This version may involve a single mentor and a small group of mentees, as in the increasingly popular cohort type of graduate program, or it may include a large group of mentees such as first-year teachers with a small cadre of mentors. In the first type of program, a group of mentees meets with an adviser, usually as a group but at times individually. The cohort idea has become popular because it saves time for the mentor who meets with a group of individuals to share common interests or needs and because the group also engages in peer mentoring of one another. The group generates ideas and challenges its members' preconceptions because the individual members develop a comfortable relationship and the group provides a safe environment for questioning.

Group mentoring may combine some elements of orientation and mentoring. The group may stay together for a semester or longer if students are enrolled in a course together and sometimes they may stay in a group as long as two or three years. Research shows that graduate students in cohort programs have a higher retention and completion rate than in non-cohort programs (see, for example, Hagedorn, 1993; Baird, 1993). The range of contact time varies from 40 or more hours in a course-based group to great variability in individual, one-on-one contacts.

School districts that hire a large number of new teachers every year may choose to rely on a version of group mentoring because administrators find it efficient mentoring. Using a large group for mentoring, however, is less effective than almost any other form of mentoring mentioned here. I have observed first-year mentoring groups of more than one hundred teachers in some school districts. The teachers gathered in school auditori-

ums and cafeterias for lectures from outside experts, with no small-group processing of what they heard, little feedback or attention to evaluation, and no follow-up. Needless to say, there was little in the way of real professional learning that occurred despite the concentrated expenditures of money and effort, not to mention the teachers' time lost to classroom instruction.

Traditional Mentoring Relationships

A third form of mentoring, often found in business, university, and other academic and professional settings, is not a "program" at all so much as it is a relationship. These relationships demand more long-term, continuous and intense one-on-one personal and professional interactions. They occur between persons of significantly unequal power and presumably expertise, as in a corporate CEO and a deputy, or a doctoral adviser and doctoral student.

The purpose of a traditional mentoring relationship is to inculcate strong professional knowledge and values in a novice and to share the process whereby the novice moves successfully through the maze of academic progress toward employment success, promotion, or tenure. Usually there is a single mentor who is assigned, or who volunteers, to work with a single mentee or perhaps a very small group of two or three mentees over a sustained period. The time frame may stretch from a year to 3 or 5 years. The nature of the mentoring is very individualistic, depending upon the needs of the mentee and the resources (especially time and disposition) of the mentor.

In these traditional one-on-one mentor relationships, the author has observed little in the way of formal organizational support. Other than the original assignment or match, organizations usually provide little in the way of formal training, shared interactions, or articulation of important organizational goals. If it is true that "they teach as they were taught," then it is likewise a truism that "they mentor as they were mentored."

Peer Mentoring

A fourth category "peer mentoring" is another form that may be short or long in duration, but this form is characterized by a far greater level of reciprocity than any of the other three types described. Mentor and mentee often switch places with one another, alternating as coach and as learner. Peer mentors meet as equals to reflect together; they are not in (or do not think of themselves as being in) a power-based relationship. Peer

mentoring is usually situational or topical and often transient or on an as-needed basis. Peer mentoring may be formal or informal. Many teachers report that informal mentoring is the most important and effective route to professional growth and that their informal mentor was far more valuable than their officially assigned mentor.

In cross-cultural settings, mentors and mentees may act more like peer mentors. They exchange roles often, with the mentee becoming the guide to competence in the local cultural context. This type of peer mentoring is often found in partnership and PDS settings (Ambrose et al., 2000), and peer mentoring is a strong feature of the St. Louis Teachers' Academy.

RECONCEIVING THE MENTORING MODEL

All four forms of mentoring described in this analysis struggle with a common problem of not asking important questions about excellence and transformation. Participants in most mentoring programs lack opportunities to explore the topic of mentoring before venturing into the process of doing it! Thus, mentoring becomes superficial and those involved never deal with what it means to be a mentor and what it means for the school and for them to excel.

Mentoring without a grounded discussion of these issues and the values underlying them make mentoring a process with no philosophical or professional underpinnings and with no shared local context. Thus, the first recommendation for setting up a program for beginning teachers, mentor teachers, doctoral students, new university faculty, or any other professional is to ask these questions and to carry on a sustained dialogue about the nature and purpose of mentoring. Other useful and generative questions that may be posed include:

- What are the goals and purposes of the organization's mentoring program?
- How do these goals fit with the needs of individuals?
- What type of training or preparation do mentors get?
- What type of training or preparation do specific mentors need, as a group or as individuals?
- What strengths do the mentors bring to the program?
- What strengths are already embedded in the group?
- What type of organizational orientation do new members of the organization get?
- How do the mentees know what to expect from a mentor, especially if they have never experienced this type of professional relationship?
- How does the mentor/mentee matching up process work? Is there an element of choice involved in the selection and matching process?
- Is it possible to change mentors? If so, how does that happen?

- How does the program structure time and space for mentoring interactions to take place?
- What supports are provided especially practical ones such as an adequate budget?

In the mentoring programs that have given consideration to these matters, the mentoring interactions are often highly structured in the early days, with support gradually being withdrawn as mentoring relationships develop and can be sustained on their own.

In addition to forming a philosophical basis for mentoring, teacher-educators need to develop a larger repertoire of strategies for mentoring. They need to know where in the adult development process a person is struggling. Today's mentor, for example, may need to encourage an already accomplished teacher to face the challenge of working with students of color. They may need to provide opportunities to polish skills for a graduate student who is already an experienced facilitator and presenter (Daloz, 1999).

Mentors may need to teach, coach, protect, counsel, advise, and nurture (Wilkinson, 1997). The mentor and mentee, if they begin with a dialogue about mentoring, can articulate their shared sense of possible roles to identify and construct the type of relationship that they mutually desire.

"Knowing how and knowing that" is a phrase often used to describe the difference between practice-based skills and more abstract or theoretical knowledge of a discipline. "Mentoring how and mentoring that" is a useful corollary to use in thinking about the new focus of mentoring. The ideal mentor/mentee relationship assists in the development of metacognitive awareness ("knowing that") and in creating a vision of shared professional goals.

STEPS IN CREATING CHANGE

One way to create mentoring programs that foster dialogue about mentoring and focus on metacognitive awareness is to change the environment of schools. A professional development school environment, as suggested by the Holmes Group (1990), for example, often includes creating a culture of mentoring. In a culture of mentoring, peer mentoring would be the norm and power relationships and hierarchies would be minimized. Teachers, preservice teachers, and graduate students in these settings often have great depth and variability in experience and life skills. At a recent local conference, a graduate student admonished his professors not to think of the doctoral student only as a "nascent scholar." "Some of us," he said, "have actually made contributions already!" In a culture of mentoring, all contributions that promote the goals of organizational progress

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and individual development are validated. A culture of mentoring includes a concept of transformation—of culture, of people, of mentoring.

Because mentoring is so critical to the retention and success of new teachers, a second important step is to carefully select mentors. This requires developing criteria for selecting mentors. Odell and Ferraro (1992) offer two criteria: purposeful collegiality and a disposition to assist others. They recognize that not all experts are capable as mentors. Being a good classroom teacher of young students does not automatically make one an equally good mentor of other adults. Being an excellent researcher may also not prepare one to become a mentor of junior colleagues.

After mentors have been identified, the organization must address mentor preparation as the next essential step. Mentors need to learn or develop skills in listening, questioning, and interviewing. The following are critical components that might be addressed in developing a mentor training program:

- Incorporate a review of adult learning and development theory. Many educators have encountered the developmental theories of Piaget (1954), Jung (1958), Erikson (1950), Kohlberg (1981), Gilligan (1982) and others in college psychology courses. However, recent advances in adult learning theories also include newer constructivist approaches, additional phase or stage theories, and a "new science and art of adult learning" called andragogy. A shared reading of these, or at a minimum a basic review of Knowles' work (1984) on adult learning, would be especially helpful to mentors-in-training.
- Costa and Garmston's work (1994) on cognitive coaching is an effective approach to learning and practicing nonjudgmental listening skills and communication for purposes of formative evaluation. It is frequently used in school districts in the St. Louis area, originally for administrators but increasingly for teachers as well.
- Work by Donald Schön (1983) on reflective practice incorporates ideas about mentoring from a variety of professional fields such as architecture, engineering, and medicine. A mentor-training program might use Schön's work to start the conversation about what it means to become a professional in any field of endeavor.
- Comparative readings force an exploration of the world outside our own small circle. If reading is confined to within the discipline, thinking can become too narrow. For example, reading about gender issues and obstacles to personal and professional development in business (e.g., Kanter, 1977) or other fields (Belenky, Clinch, Goldberger & Turule, 1986) can raise important questions which can also be applied to gender issues in the educational field.
- Another source of material for training mentors can come from the comparative education literature where one can read how educators function in culturally diverse settings (Feiler, 1991; Freire, 1970,

1992; Shimahara, 1995). Such study could lead to the examination of how our mentoring approaches are constrained by cultural and gendered notions of leadership and of excellence and how we are supporting or cracking the "glass ceiling" in our profession.

By engaging in a reflective dialogue with mentees and others about what it means to mentor expressly for the purposes of educational and social change, mentors are more likely to become the transformative and empowering leaders needed for the next generation of educators and professionals.

CONCLUSIONS

The Missouri Teachers' Academy is a promising program that has helped to advance the leader roles of teachers and has raised the awareness of the potential value of mentoring as a means of professional development. If this initiative and others like it are to meet their full potential, much more attention must be given to establishing school environments that foster dialogue and reflection within a culture of mentoring. This requires that those who are expected to serve as mentors must also undergo their own transformation. Hopefully, the ideas presented in this chapter will provide the reader with some guidelines to enable them to initiate programs and provide training and development for those they are preparing as mentors so that mentoring can become a powerful avenue for individual and organizational growth.

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CHAPTER 11

MENTORING LEADERS
Some Reflections on the Experience

Luana Zellner and David Erlandson

In an era when confidence in public educators is falling, recruitment for school leadership roles is becoming more difficult. The role of the school leader has become increasingly complex during the last decade (Kochan, Jackson, & Duke, 1999). Even with an emphasis on the infusion of leadership throughout the school through site-based decision-making and a de-emphasis on the traditional hierarchical managerial leadership style, the demands on the school leader have increased. Superintendents who reported a shortage of school principals, identified the following as the reasons they believed they were unable to fill these positions.

1. The principalship is too stressful (32%)
2. The job requires too much time (27%)
3. It is difficult to satisfy parents/community (14%)
4. Societal problems make it hard for principals to focus on instruction (13%) (The Washington Post, 2000).

In conceptualizing the job of the principal, we have found it useful to distinguish between the principal and the principalship. The principal is a man or woman who occupies a position as the chief executive officer of a school. The principalship represents the entire leadership function that must be performed in the school and, though overseen and coordinated by the principal, also includes the performance of separate leadership activities by assistant principals, teachers, counselors, and others.

This concept of the principalship obviously expands our concept of leadership. In the first School Leadership Library volume, *Leadership: A Relevant and Realistic Role for Principals* (Crow, Matthews, & McCleary, 1996), the authors raise the question of whether principal leadership is "everything or nothing" (p. 1). They note that the principal does not and cannot control all the decisions related to the school. There is leadership (and school related decisions) from external sources (e.g., district, legislature) over which principals may have little control.

In a recent survey, the item that contributed most to the job satisfaction of the school administrators who responded was "...feeling a sense of worth and accomplishment as a school administrator" (Zellner, unpublished manuscript). However, these respondents reported the principalship as a lonely job with more recognition given to mistakes made than to accomplishments attained. With these reports in mind, principal preparation has had to reinvent itself to fit the complexities of the school.

Principals in uncommon numbers are leaving their positions in search of more fulfilling and personally healthful work. Burnout and 'finding balance' are hot topics on professional meeting agendas. Every state now faces a crisis as applicant pools for administrative and formal teacher leadership roles are drying up. In short, "the harder those in leadership positions try to lead [in a classical leadership model], the greater the personal price they risk paying for doing so" (Donaldson, 2001, p. 34).

Because of the needs of school leaders and the complexities of the roles they must fufill, preparation for this role can no longer end with a certificate, credential, or degree. It must be on-going, continuous, and supportive throughout the career of the principal (Zellner & Erlandson, 1997; Zellner, Skrla, & Erlandson, 2001). Aspiring principals must envision themselves as leaders who will be lifelong learners.

Preservice preparation, induction, and ongoing professional development programs for school administrators [principals] have typically taken a functionalist approach (Sheurich & Imber, 1991; Slater, 1995) to training school leaders. Preparation programs sought to instill principals with a set of skills and knowledge that "experts" in the field had decided they should have. They were then sent out into schools to apply what they learned. Subsequent professional development has been and continues to be left up to the principal or the school system. It was generally assumed that he or she would seek out appropriate training opportunities to acquire additional or more refined tools with which to do the job. Conceptualizing the principalship, and the preparation and training needs associated with it, in this scientific/bureaucratic fashion fails to take into account the complexity of educational environments (Walker & Stott, 1993; Zellner, Skrla, & Erlandson, 2001).

Principals often feel like isolated links in the chain of command, caught somewhere between students, teachers, parents, and the district office. Though they are surrounded and even overwhelmed by all the people

clamoring for their attention, they often feel deeply lonely. But principals can become allies and guides for each other. They can help each other through reflection, dialogue, and mentoring (Bolman & Deal, 1993.)

DEVELOPING LEADERSHIP THROUGH MENTORING PROGRAMS

This chapter is derived from what was learned from three different initiatives that originated in the work of the Texas A&M Principals' Center and gave support to novice and experienced school leaders. Each of these initiatives had a somewhat different perspective, but all depended heavily on the development of vital mentoring relationships in the professional growth process. The three initiatives focus on the skills school administrators need to be successful with parents, teachers, staff, and, most of all, children. Each program has a strong emphasis on leadership and reflection on leadership practices.

The chapter describes each and then presents an analysis of the commonalities among the programs along with implications for those interested in developing and implementing similar programs. The first program is the School Leadership Initiative Program (SLI), a 3-year pilot mentor program for the assistant principal. The second initiative is the Richardson Mentor Principal Program (RMP), a mentor program for the seasoned school administrators who at some point in their careers have been recognized for making a positive difference in their schools. The third program is an outgrowth of the other two [SLI and RMP programs]. It is referred to as the Aspiring Principals' Program. This initiative focuses on recruiting and training potential teacher leaders into assistant principal positions in rural communities.

The School Leadership Initiative (SLI)

The complex role of the principalship is best learned and developed by "observing, doing, commenting, and questioning, rather than simply listening" (Walker & Stott, 1993, p. 77) under the guidance of experienced exemplary principals who serve as mentors and guides. Thus, mentoring of aspiring and new principals is gaining ground as a recommended approach in a number of countries, including the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, and Singapore, and the United States (Thody, 1993; Walker & Stott, 1993).

Thanks to a three-year commitment and grant support from the Sid W. Richardson Foundation, the Texas A&M Principals' Center developed and piloted the School Leadership Initiative (SLI). This pilot mentoring pro-

gram focused on building leadership laboratories in 12 public schools. The schools were originally selected from 5 Texas school districts on the basis of their commitment to building a mentor program for leadership development. By the third year of the program, the SLI grew from 12 to 16 selected school sites in 6 school districts because some of the assistant principals who were part of the program during the first 2 years accepted principalships and wished to remain in the mentor program.

Each laboratory [selected public school] consisted of a building principal [nominated SLI mentor principal] and an assistant principal or selected teacher leader (SLI intern – mentee). The philosophy governing the program was that these leadership laboratories would become effective learning environments that would foster continuous measurable improvement in all areas of leadership, instruction, and student learning.

The SLI drew extensively upon the recommendations and content of NASSP's 1992 monograph, *Developing School Leaders: A Call for Collaboration*, in shaping its mission and governance structure. The goal of the program was to collaboratively explore the full range of leadership effectively harnessed and coordinated to enhance the school as a community of learners. Program participants were prepared to embrace the belief that exemplary school leadership addresses all aspects of the 21 Performance Domains of the Principalship (NAACP, 1992). Ultimately, the SLI experiment enabled Texas A&M University to restructure how principals are recruited, trained, and mentored in their careers (Zellner & Erlandson, 1997).

The Spirit of the SLI Program

Commitment, communication, participation, and reflection on leadership sculpted the *spirit* of the program. The most successful leadership laboratories were campuses that consistently followed these tenets. A brief description of these program elements and their importance follows.

Commitment was essential in the pilot program. Both mentor and mentee had to agree to create a professional growth plan of action from which the mentee could develop essential leadership skills. This commitment meant scheduling time during the week to discuss a project or activity that the mentee would initiate or facilitate. Commitment also meant active participation in professional growth experiences.

Communication was a key factor in the success of this program. Conversations among SLI members were conducted in a variety of ways to ensure collaborative support between the university, the school campuses, mentor principals, and interns. Bi-monthly seminars, retreats, and the use of technology helped in the training and mentoring of participants throughout the three years of the pilot program.

Participation in retreats, school site visits, and development of a professional development plan were believed to enhance leadership skills for both novice and seasoned campus administrator. Active participation in

the SLI program helped the mentor and intern collaboratively design professional development experiences. The professional development plan allowed the intern (usually an assistant principal) to participate in leadership activities beyond the usual 4 "B's" (bells, balls, books, behavior management). Assistant principals are most commonly awarded managerial tasks which involve managing schedules (bells), counting equipment and recording items (balls), counting texts (books), as well as taking care of student discipline problems (behavior management). None of these tasks properly give the aspiring campus leader an opportunity to make programmatic or systemic change in schools. This explains why many assistant principals remain assistant principals. This also explains why the assistant principal position is often viewed as a liability in the employment market. These dedicated work horses are often passed by when a principalship position becomes available. Without a record of leadership tasks and performance, school boards and staff shy away from hiring someone who has engaged primarily in managerial tasks. When SLI mentor principals were first asked why assistants aren't given more opportunities to develop programmatic change for improving the condition of the school, mentors promptly replied, "... There is no time to allow assistant principals to participate in campus improvement activities;" "...I don't know how to mentor my assistant into taking more responsibility without them thinking I am adding to their work load," "...They [assistant principals] need to take the initiative by planning events and activities that will enhance their leadership skills and improve the school." "...Some assistant principals are just natural born leaders—leadership can't be taught ... you just *have* leadership capability."

Reflection on leadership was an important part of the program. At first, participants disliked this assignment because it included a journal writing requirement. They were required to reflect on their own leadership skill development. This activity took time. Time seemed to be a key factor in the success or failure of this enterprise. Participants who faithfully engaged in this activity (10 of the 33 participants) praised the results of their labor. They discovered this exercise helped them identify the types of leadership activities in which they were typically engaged or not engaged. It also caused them to take time to evaluate their role in total school leadership. By keeping a journal, they were able to track their administrative practice and attainment of personal goals for professional growth.

> All preparation experiences and programs should emphasize formal reflection, strategies for collaborating with teachers (particularly coaching teachers towards instructional improvement), and substantive time to practice the variety of decision making and leadership skills associated with the principalship. (Fenwick, 2000, p.18)

Activities that Sculpted the SLI Program

Just as there were elements that created the spirit of the program, there were 5 activities that molded or sculpted it and gave it a framework of operations. These activities were email/listserve; summer training institutes, seminars, and retreats; the development of a professional development plan; and change projects. Each of these activities is described in more detail in this section.

- **E-mail List Serve.** Mentors, mentees, and professors were able to share their thoughts and concerns through a continuous flow of conversation via the internet Networking with school administrators from several school districts as well as university faculty was identified to be the most valued of experiences by SLI participants.
- **Summer Training Institutes, Seminars, and Retreats.** Summer training institutes, seminars, and retreats focused on specific topics selected by participants. These training experiences were coupled with book studies to support topics covered, and they continue today as professional growth and renewal opportunities for school administrators and teacher leadership teams at the Texas A&M University Principals' Center.
- **Professional Development Plan.** All SLI participants strongly supported the inclusion of the SLI philosophy: "All schools should operate as leadership laboratories, creating effective learning environments and committed to continuous measurable improvement." With this philosophy in mind, it was agreed that the participants' should create professional development plans that included:
  1. A plan for mentoring campus wide leadership;
  2. A systematic way to support the implementation of best instruction; and
  3. A systematic way to support use of best administrative practices.
- **Change Projects.** Mentor principals as well as university staff were impressed with the professional growth of the mentees as well as with the many excellent change projects conducted in leadership laboratories. Because teachers and districts recognized the benefits of these projects, many SLI mentees had numerous invitations to conduct seminars, presentations, and inservices. Change projects were collaboratively developed and orchestrated by the mentees with guidance from their mentors. The projects gave mentees opportunity to develop leadership skills while addressing real problems on their campuses. Some projects branched into dissertation proposals for mentees aspiring to complete an advanced university degree, some projects led to consulting agreements with other schools and school districts, and still others led to the ultimate mentee goal of employment as a campus principal.

Lessons Learned from the SLI Experience

Summative information gathered during the third year of the SLI program supports the importance of:

1. Including training opportunities for personal professional growth for school administrators;
2. Developing a mentor relationship between mentor principal and intern;
3. Designating a time for the intern (assistant principal) to plan and implement campus change through a specific project(s) for leadership development;
4. Promoting continued dialogue and professional development of university faculty and school administrators in partnership;
5. Proving time during the school day for the campus administrator to reflect on school issues, school climate, student attitudes, as well as teacher and community satisfaction with school;
6. Having campuses serve as leadership laboratories for training as well as recruiting school administrators;
7. Redesigning the purpose of the weekly campus faculty meetings to be professional growth opportunities for faculty as well as the campus administrator;
8. Conducting summer institutes, retreats, and seminars for school administrators' professional growth and development.

The Richardson Mentor Principal Program (RMP)

Upon completion of the School Leadership Initiative, the Principals' Center received another three-year commitment from the Richardson Foundation to provide an equivalent kind of professional development for experienced principals. Unlike the SLI program, which focused on developing leadership laboratories for mentoring assistant principals (SLI Mentees) into the head role of principal, the Richardson Mentor Principal program (RMP) invited seasoned exemplary school leaders to explore ways to improve the condition of the principalship. Since all these principals were chosen for their rich backgrounds and expertise, the program was constructed to enable them to engage in an ongoing process of mutual mentoring. Hence the name: Richardson Mentor Principals (RMPs).

The goals of this grant supported program were to:

1. foster excellence in leadership development by facilitating the building of partnerships among major stakeholders;
2. promote development of model projects in principal leadership;
3. determine key issues in principal preparation; and

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4. disseminate this information to educators.

The primary tenets of the program included commitment to seeking best leadership practices, reflection on leadership practice, and building a shared vision of leadership that would permeate educational settings. These tenets were addressed through a series of strategies for sculpting the RMP program including: building mentoring relationships, rethinking the role of principal, researching and redesigning school leadership practices, and examining beliefs and procedures. These are described in the following sections.

Building Mentoring Relationships

During the first year of this three year program a group of 17 principals were chosen on the basis of their own commitment and that of their employing school district to their professional development. All the selected principals (RMPs) had been vital change agents in their schools or school districts. They exemplified the terms "life long learner" and "change agent" in every capacity. Since it had already been demonstrated that mentoring within a supportive community fosters retention of leaders in principalship positions, the major thrust of the RMP program was to provide a supportive professional network among school leaders and university professors where ideas on best practice in campus leadership could be explored and shared. The charge of this outstanding network of educators was to explore ways that principal preparation and practice could produce a change in how leaders are recruited, trained, and sustained in school leadership roles (Ackerman, Donaldson, VanDerBogert, 1996; Barth, 1997; Donaldson, 2001; Erlandson, 1997).

At the beginning of the RMP program, 14 of the principals were paired up in two-way mentoring relationships. Three others joined in a three-way mentoring network. Similar to the SLI program, communication and reflection were key ingredients in the RMP program. The use of technology for linking participating principals throughout the second largest state in the union went from video conferencing and listserves to periodic seminars supported by the use of an interactive web board. Several book studies took place. Principal conversations were built upon book studies that included the work of Schön (1987), Jensen (2000), Erlandson (1996), Barth (1997), Donaldson (2001), Ackerman , Donaldson, VanDerBogert (1996), and Delpit (1995). From book studies and articles, the RMPs sculpted a theoretical framework for which their change projects and research could be developed.

Rethinking the Role of the Principal

During the initial phase of the program, RMPs participated in a variety of professional growth experiences that helped them rethink and redesign

what the principal's role should be in schools today. Each RMP designed a campus "change project" or conducted research that would ultimately support a theory or give needed information for supporting a campus change. Their change projects fit their desire to make the school or educational setting a "learning community." The planning and implementation of each project was designed to take place over a two year period. RMPs teamed up in research/writing teams (pairs or groups of 3 RMPs) with similar campus change projects in mind. Each team was grouped together by research interest and program commonality. Research projects included: (a) design and implementation of a mentor/support program for 9th graders; (b) design and implementation of an aspiring principals training program; (c) design and implementation of a dual language program for elementary students grades K through 2; (d) a case study involving 3 elementary schools that have incorporated brain based learning research into the curriculum and the physical setting of the school; and (e) design and implementation of a curriculum framework that included bilingual students, their parents, and their teachers.

Researching and Redesigning School Leadership Practices

By the third year of the program, each RMP would reflect, analyze, and then write a report for dissemination in the form of a monograph on best leadership practices for building a learning community. RMP projects were slated to address a particular leadership and/or curriculum issue that affects whether or not the school is a true learning community. To help them with this project, RMPs participated in book studies, retreats, seminars, and conferences that focused on how they could become dynamic leaders of *change* on their campuses and in their state. They shared their reflections by way of an interactive web forum (http://www.coe.tamu.edu/wwwboard/principals/) and a web based newsletter (http://www.coe.tamu.edu/~princtr/news/newscove.htm). These activities helped link educators from both the school and university settings. The RMPs became more reflective and astute practitioners in designing what today's school leaders need in making a difference on their campuses as well as developing their leadership skill.

Examining Beliefs and Procedures in School Systems

As the RMP's learned how to learn from each other, they became willing to share openly with each other the true strengths and weaknesses of their respective schools. Essentially they asked the two questions: (1) What do I and my faculty believe about my school? (2) How are our systemic procedures serving these beliefs? This was a difficult step that would have been impossible if the principals had not already developed a powerful web of mutual mentoring. At first many of the principals were reluctant to paint the picture of their schools that they really knew was true, but as they began

to see others describe their schools' weaknesses, they became emboldened to honestly provide an open account of their own. They learned, as Lightfoot (1985) noted, that weaknesses and flaws exist in all schools. The mark of a good school is how it systematically addresses those weaknesses and moves forward to serve students. This open addressing of school weaknesses was an important step. From this point forward, the 17 experienced principals (augmented by three professors assigned to the project) were able to build relevant plans for the future.

The Aspiring Principals Program [Del Rio ISD, Texas]

Recruitment and retention of principals are major problems school districts face in small towns clustered near the border that divides Mexico and Texas. Dr. Patty McNamara, an elementary school principal and participant in the RMP program wished to establish a program that would identify potential school leaders and mentor them into eventual school administrator roles in these border towns. She is a prime example of what can evolve when professional development experiences are meaningful to the participants. Her leadership philosophy mirrored the primary tenets of the RMP program: commitment, reflection, and shared vision.

The program demonstrated both the potential and the frailty of the mentoring relationship. Dr. McNamara took on the responsibility for mentoring all five of the aspiring principals in the cohort. This was added to her work as the coordinator of the program and her job as a full-time principal. It was recognized from the beginning that this situation was not ideal; but, because of the unavailability of other mentor principals, it was necessary.

The Aspiring Principals program (Del Rio Principals' Academy) included professional preparation and growth opportunities that supported a model of leadership other than traditional corporate managerial models. The goal of the program was to give the first cohort (5 teachers and/or assistant principals) skills for developing a *spirit* of leadership that would support a learning community. We anticipated continuity in leadership practices, student achievement, staff development, and daily instruction to be the result of this new model of principal recruitment and training. A series of professional development activities were included in the Del Rio Principals' Academy, which covered two years of mentoring and training prior to placement. These included:

1. *Orientation to the Program.* Aspiring principals met with their mentor principal and cohort to discuss commitment, purpose, timeline, required reading for book studies and a two year plan for professional training.

2. *Portfolios.* The aspiring principals prepared portfolios, which contained artifacts documenting involvement in leadership activities over the course of the training.
3. *Journals.* Each participant was also required to keep a journal of his or her journey through the program
4. *Self-evaluation of leadership styles.* Each aspiring principal created a professional development plan, participated in an appraisal of principal skills, and learned how to apply and critique their leadership growth with the SBEC Standards (State Board for Educator Standards of Texas). They used the constructs of Argyris and Schön's Model I and Model II to guide their development (Argyris & Schön, 1987; Erlandson, Stark, & Ward, 1996). Reflection on leadership style by each member of the cohort during the course of the program was a major part of their professional development.
5. *Designing a professional development plan.* A professional development plan was constructed by each participant to guide growth in the program and entry into leadership positions after the program.
6. *Designing a "change project" each year while attending the program.* The first project consisted of learning the nuts and bolts of school planning. The cohort coordinated their school plan with the Office of Instruction. They made a campus master schedule, ordered custodial and classroom supplies, created a student accountability form, designed a Title I budget, planned a bus schedule, planned for staff development, and made summer school flyers. They also visited a summer school site to see the implementation of a plan in action.

   The second project required the design of campus improvement plans (CIP's). They did this task in collaboration with a school/community task force. The cohort was required to disaggregate their annual student test data as well as look for academic strengths and areas of concern. The next step was to use this disaggregated data in forming their CIP's.

   A third project required each participant to prepare and present a mini-staff development session to the faculties at their individual schools. Projects focused on their new found knowledge of "brain based learning." Each presentation was based on material covered during a book study focused on brain-based learning strategies. The particular book study focused on Eric Jensen's "Teaching with the Brain in Mind" (Jensen, 2000).

Lessons Learned from the Aspiring Principals (AP) Program

A key lesson learned from the AP program was that *commitment* and *time* are major concerns of persons who are being prepared as principals. If par-

ticipants weren't committed to the philosophy of the Aspiring Principals Program, they failed to complete the program. Those who were committed to the goals of the program benefitted greatly. In other words, it became clear that the role of the mentor is impacted by the commitment of the person being mentored. If commitment is not present, considerable time must be devoted by the mentor to make the relationship work. Even if commitment is strong, the mentoring relationship still requires that significant time be committed to it. Time is perhaps the most precious and scarce resource that a mentor/school administrator has.

In addition to identifying commitment and time as essential factors in an effective principal preparation program, several other recommendations emerged from the Aspiring Principals' experience:

1. Opportunities should be provided to classroom teachers for developing leadership skills that can eventually lead to leadership in a team, a school, or throughout a school district.
2. Aspiring principals need a mentor and leadership role model to aspire to.
3. School leaders should be identified early in their professional development. Undergraduates who show commitment and interest in school leadership should be given opportunities to shadow a principal.
4. Teachers who have a knowledge of best teaching practice and see themselves as *facilitators* of leadership with their peers make the best candidates for the principalship.
5. A willingness to engage in reflection on practice should be of prime consideration in the recruitment of school leaders.

OVERARCHING PRINCIPLES FOR SUCCESSFUL MENTORING RELATIONSHIPS

From our experience with these three projects and our ongoing activity in working with principals and other school professionals, we have identified a number of principles we have learned about the mentoring process. We believe that both the mentor and the person being mentored must:

1. *Be willing and able to devote time to making the relationship work.*

   Time was a major barrier in each of the three projects that we've examined. It became obvious in the Aspiring Principals Program, but it also operated in the other programs. It takes quality time to develop the interpersonal relationships that make mentoring work. The investment of time in the mentoring relationship paid off in major personal and professional development. All mentors and

mentees recognized this; but the very real constraints of their daily jobs kept them from devoting the necessary time to the mentoring relationship. However, it appeared that time is always available for what is considered most important. The mentoring relationship will be successful only if all parties assign it the importance it deserves.

2. *Be genuinely and personally interested in the professional goals and future of the other person.*

   People tend to put their own concerns first. But leadership is about interpersonal relationships, and those persons entering into a mentoring relationship (whether mentor or mentee) will not succeed unless they fully understand what drives the other person. They must work together for their mutual success and for the ultimate benefit of schools and the children they serve. This can happen only when each person is committed to the success of the other.

3. *Mutually believe that the mentor and mentee have something of personal and professional value to contribute to the mentoring relationship*

   This principle applies to both the mentor and the mentee. Obviously, the mentor, in agreeing to take on that role must assume that she or he has something to contribute. The mentee may come into the relationship as a neophyte (as in the School Leadership Initiative or the Aspiring Principals Program) or as a highly seasoned professional (as in the case of the Richardson Mentor Principals program); but her or his assignment should not be to simply absorb knowledge and pick up skills. She or he has valuable knowledge and skill to share with others. Using these to enrich other professionals is at the heart of the mentoring process.

4. *Believe that he or she can learn something of personal and professional value from the other person.*

   This is the reverse side of the previous principle. In this case it is the person being mentored that comes into the relationship knowing that she or he has something to learn. However, the mentor must also expect to learn and grow from the relationship.

5. *Be able to establish a trust relationship with the other person.*

   This is sometimes difficult, but it is essential. The mentor and mentee don't have to become lifelong friends, but there must be sufficient trust established to enable them both to grow.

6. *Be able to deal with ambiguity or disagreement in the relationship.*

   Things change constantly in schools, and, as a result, life in a school is often chaotic and ambiguous. These conditions often lead to genuine disagreements about policies, procedures, and personnel, even among intelligent well meaning professionals. Such chaos and ambiguity are likely to occur in a vital mentoring relationship. Both mentor and mentee must learn how to grow personally and professionally in such situations and must learn to use such situa-

tions for extending their individual and collective understandings and to shape better alternatives for the students they serve.

7. *Be unwilling to be a clone of the other person or to allow the other person to become a clone.*

   The last thing any mentor should want is for the mentee to become "just like me." This denies the personal strengths that each partner brings to the relationship. Similarly, while the mentee may admire the mentor, and attempt to learn from working with that person, he or she must still be be dedicated to shaping her or his own leadership style and identity.

SUMMARY

In developing a learning community within the walls of the school, there needs to be a spirit of leadership focused on achieving the goals of the schools' vision. The school vision should center on what the learning community deems as its *non-negotiables*. Exemplary school principals focus all decision making on the vision and goals of the learning community. They participate in shared decision making, reflection on practice, and on-going professional renewal. They view themselves as leaders of leaders and facilitators. They have a step by step strategy for making the school vision a reality and feel comfortable in working collaboratively to achieve school goals.

If new leaders are to be developed who can work with their professional staffs to design and shape school learning communities for the 21st Century, they will need to be prepared in new ways that develop the spirit of leadership within their schools. Mentoring is a key feature in the process of building leaders. This chapter has provided three attempts to nurture the spirit of leadership. As we have learned from these three ventures, mentoring is not a simple process. A complex and delicate fabric of interpersonal relationships must be shaped to make mentoring work.

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CHAPTER 12

TRACING THE DEVELOPMENT OF MENTORING RELATIONSHIPS OF TEACHERS
Four Case Studies

Susan M. Tauer

INTRODUCTION

In Homer's *The Odyssey*, the ruler Odysseus charged Mentor, his respected elder advisor, with the care of his son Telemachus as the former set off to fight in the Trojan Wars. The close, trusting relationship developed over an extended period of time between Mentor and Telemachus, proved to be essential in the story, for it was in adopting the persona of trusted Mentor that Athena, warrior goddess of wisdom, could assist and protect Telemachus as he searched for his father, Odysseus. Through the years, the mentoring concept has grown and developed and we continue to grapple with how to build such trusting relationship.

One of the defining characteristics of the mentoring relationship is time; time to allow the foundational sentiments of trust and respect to emerge between the two members, to allow the two to work productively for their mutual benefit; and to permit the relationship to evolve in response to the changing needs of the two members.

Teacher-teacher mentor relationships in formalized school-based mentor programs present some interesting challenges related to time. The expected lifespan of these school-based relationships tends to be limited to

one school year (at best ten months). An important question then becomes whether productive mentoring relationships based on a foundation of mutual respect and trust can be established within the confines of a school year with a minimum amount of time to meet and share.

I investigated this question through in-depth case studies of such relationships. These case studies traced the development of four teacher-teacher mentor relationships in a school setting. I used Merriam's (1988) case study design to collect, analyze, and describe the evolution of these mentoring relationships throughout the school year. Data sources included numerous in-depth semi-structured interviews (Seidman, 1991) of both mentors and mentees conducted over the course of a school year, as well as field observations of the partners interacting in one-on-one and group situations.

The four mentor teachers in this study were veteran teachers, averaging twenty-two years of teaching experience at the time of the study. They taught in the same school district, two at the high school level and two at the elementary level. Three of the mentees were new to teaching as well as the district, while the fourth had taught for six years elsewhere, but was new to the district.

RELEVANT LITERATURE

Mentor relationships have been cited as effective (and for some, essential) strategies to help new organizational or professional members to gain access to important information and knowledge during their first year of teaching. At the same time, these relationships have been shown to provide rejuvenating experiences for veteran members of an organization or institution (Erikson, 1978; Levine, 1989; Levinson et al., 1978). Not only does the novice member gain valuable insights and useful information from the seasoned member (McKenna, 1998; Thies-Sprinthall, 1986), but mentors may experience feelings of regenerativity and self-validation as they realize the extent and worth of their experiences and knowledge (Erickson, 1978). It must be recognized, however, that the mentor relationship is not always as productive as anticipated (Tauer, 1998), and either or both members may reap little if any benefit from the relationship.

Studies carried out in the 1980s attempted to understand the mentoring relationship from a developmental perspective in order to identify the stages or phases through which such a relationship passes. Phillips-Jones (1982) studied female managers and executives in mentor relationships and identified five phases of the relationship which generally evolved over a three-to-five year period. Kram (1983) studied male executives and identified four phases of the relationship that may span a period of two to eight years.

During the first phase of the relationship, labeled mutual attraction by Phillips-Jones (1982) and initiation by Kram (1983), the two participants get to know one another and realize the potential benefits of the relationship. Phillips-Jones likens this period to falling in love. Participants may experience feelings of trepidation and uncertainty as well as excitement and anticipation. Kram describes this period as the time when the requisite trust of and respect for one another is formed. Protégés come to see mentors as a people of stature in the organization who possess important and worthwhile knowledge. They also come to realize that a mentor will be able to contribute positively to their successful integration into the organization. Finally, mentees begin to trust their mentor, opening up their ability to confide in the person they will be working with. During this period, mentors begin to see the potential of their protégés and to realize that their knowledge may be of worth to the protégé. They also see the value of helping younger counterparts.

Once this foundation of mutual trust and respect has been established, the relationship advances to the development (Phillips-Jones, 1982) or cultivation (Kram, 1983) phase when the positive expectations set are tested as each member begins to realize the value of the relationship. During this period, Kram found that the mentor carries out two categories of functions: career functions which primarily "enhance career advancement" (p. 614) and psychosocial functions which "enhance sense of competence, clarity of identity, and effectiveness in the managerial role," (p. 614). Career functions, as Kram delineates them, include sponsorship, coaching, or challenging assignments and are related to the mentor's stature within the organization. Psychosocial functions include modeling, accepting and confirming, and are more dependent on the degree of trust that characterizes the relationship.

As protégés become more comfortable in their work settings and confident about their role and ability to fulfill the expectations of the job, the relationship begins to shift again. This next phase(s), separation for Kram (1983) and disillusionment and parting for Phillips-Jones (1982), is characterized by significant changes in the relationship and some kind of separation is inevitable. Tension or anxiety felt by one or both of the participants is common. The final phase is redefinition, during which the two members seek to redefine their relationship, ideally as a friendship or a collegiate relationship.

Based on their research in school settings, Gray and Gray (1985) propose a similar model of the mentor relationship based on the individual contributions of the two members. The mentor first sets up the relationship (M), then plays a dominant role by providing advice and information to help the protégé function in his or her new environment (Mp). As the protégé gains knowledge and experience, the relationship becomes more balanced, until it becomes one of equals in which the two participants contribute to and benefit from one another's knowledge base (MP). The rela-

tionship eventually progresses towards autonomy for the protegé (mP then P). Their descriptors of mentor functions and roles, while more detailed with more categories, appear to be similar to the delineation between Kram's career functions (e.g., M teaches P the ropes; explains school culture) and psychosocial functions (e.g., M positively reinforces P, shows P how, suggests improvements).

Using Kram (1983) and Gray and Gray's (1985) models as frameworks, I will describe and analyze the four relationship I examined through my case studies. I first provide a description of the district's mentor program, which frames all four of the relationships. These descriptions will be followed by a discussion of the evolution of these relationships. All names have been changed to ensure anonymity.

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION

Morgan is a small upper middle class community situated northwest of a major metropolitan area of the Northeast. With a median family income of $150,000, the community prides itself on its rich historical tradition, bucolic living environment, and quality schools. The school system educates approximately 2000 students in five schools—three elementary, one middle and one regional high school. Teacher work conditions and salaries are very competitive in a competitive environment and the student-teacher ratio remains low. Generous resources are allocated to the schools to maintain their reputation for quality.

Over the past ten years, realizing that the teaching population, which had remained relatively stable, would soon begin to experience rising teacher retirements and a corollary increase in the number of new (and often neophyte) teachers being hired, the school district charged a group of teachers and administrators with establishing a mentor program with the following goals: to provide non-evaluative support for new teachers, to socialize new teachers into the Morgan School System, and to recognize outstanding experienced teachers. The program was designed to provide a mentor for all teachers new to the district.

Mentors are selected from a pool of experienced teachers who are self-nominated. They receive a nominal leadership stipend and per diem payment for two days of mentor training during the summer. Both mentors and newcomers are given release time to attend bimonthly meetings.

Program coordinators are responsible for matching mentors with newcomers. First priority is given to proximity, so that matches are made within a school if possible. Secondary consideration is given to grade level and/or subject area. The matches are made in the summer and introductions are made at an orientation meeting, which occurs before school begins in September. Mentors are expected to set up regular meetings with their part-

ners, conduct six peer observations (as either the observer or the observed), and attend the mentor meetings with their partners. They are also expected to ensure confidentiality in the relationship.

All four mentor teachers in my case studies were introduced to their partners during the August orientation session. All participants adhered to all expectations of the program.

Andrew and Caroline

Andrew, the sole Latin teacher in the foreign language department, had never served as a mentor teacher largely because there had been so few hirings in his department (and none in Latin). When he learned that two new Spanish teachers would be hired this year, Andrew applied and was selected to serve as mentor for Caroline, a first-year Spanish teacher. The child of professional educators, Caroline initially rejected the idea of teaching, but then while doing graduate work in Spanish, she developed an interest in being in the classroom. She completed the requisite education courses and practicum to earn her licensure in secondary Spanish and was then hired in Morgan to fill a one-year vacancy for a teacher on sabbatical.

Andrew and Caroline set up weekly meetings at which time they talked about topics of interest or importance to them. Andrew admitted to having a particular agenda for Caroline which included introducing her to the school at large, preparing her for upcoming activities, or explaining administrative duties. To help her feel more a part of the whole school, not just the department, Andrew wanted her to get to know faculty in other departments and would give her quizzes on school personnel—"important personalities about the school." He also encouraged her to observe other teachers in different departments, often giving her specific names of teachers to contact.

For her part, Caroline had her share of concerns or queries, primarily "classroom management matters, department etiquette matters, and where do I go to find such-and-such a thing, and how do I deal with such-and-such a form—that kind of 'school ropes' matters." Andrew would respond to Caroline's questions or concerns, although he recognizes that she did not always find his comments comforting.

> I said to her the other day something that she wasn't willing to accept: that if you have four classes in the year, it's a good year if two of them are with you and one of them ain't and the other ...and the other one you have a good working relationship with.

In the second semester, their interactions decreased as Caroline became more comfortable in her new environment and more integrated into the

department and the school. Still, they continued to "meet with each other weekly," with Andrew's agenda being to make Caroline aware of the end-of-the-year activities and events. "It's at this stage of the game, that kind of information that I want to give her." Classroom management issues remained a topic of conversation throughout the year, while curricular discussions were infrequent. "We've talked more about how to deal with classroom management things, behavior, particular students that give her problems. That's been more the subject of our conversations than anything pedagogical."

Caroline adjusted to teaching and to Morgan and took part in department noontime discussions with her colleagues. Outside of the department, Caroline volunteered to be faculty advisor for the freshman class and one of the co-leaders of a peer mediation group. Andrew modestly attributes Caroline's successful integration into the department and the school mostly to Caroline's own "get-go" while recognizing that his urgings may have initiated her actions. "One of the jobs that I thought was most important for me, facilitating contact with the outside world, she's taken on herself."

Although Andrew and Caroline carried out some of the peer observations required by the program, he insists that neither found much value in these observations. Subscribing to the belief "that idiosyncratic teaching is the best one," Andrew was reluctant to critique Caroline's teaching style. "She's got a way to do things, and I feel strongly that a person should be ... allowed to work within that person's style. If it's not working, then somebody's got to come in and do something about it, and that's ... the evaluator's job."

"Tremendous, very constructive, changing over time in ways that were easy and seemed ... to feel good for both of us" was how Andrew described his relationship with Caroline this year. "The relationship has been, I think, all that a person would hope for." As he traced the development of their relationship throughout the school year, he described their relationship as a "natural, evolving, organic kind of relationship," he even speculated on the future of their relationship next year, hoping that there would be some enduring effect to the special connection that was established over the year.

> We've continued to meet weekly ... and even if we don't have anything to talk about, if we don't have a fixed agenda to talk about, there are enough casual things that we've brought up in the course of the year's conversation, so there are things to say. Just to keep in touch as it were, and next year, all that's going to go away in terms of regular fixed meetings, but I'm sure that if there's anything that comes up and catches Caroline by surprise, she might ask me first before going to somebody else with it.

Marilynn and Janet

During her tenure in the foreign language department, Marilynn had taken on numerous responsibilities, most notably department chair for nearly ten years. Having resumed full-time teaching of French, Marilynn was attracted to the idea of taking on yet another responsibility by serving as mentor for one of the new Spanish teachers. She applied to the program when the notice came out and was matched with Janet, the second new Spanish teacher. Janet had spent the previous six years teaching Spanish at a private girls' high school in the mid-Atlantic region of the country. A native New Englander, Janet wanted to move closer to her family and sought a teaching position in the Northeast. She was hired to teach Spanish at the high school.

Marilynn and Janet established weekly meetings during their common free period. Similar to Andrew's agenda for Caroline, Marilynn wanted to help Janet develop a sense of belonging and affiliation with the department. Most often, however, the meetings would focus on Janet's list of "things she wants to ask or wants to talk about." Usually, it started with a question or a problem—from Janet and it was, "Well, have you tried this?" or she would say, "I've done this and I've tried this," and I would say, "Yeah, I would have tried those same things, and what happened? Then we'd go back and forth from there and just sort of brainstorm solutions."

Their topics of discussion would range from discipline issues, curriculum concerns, or logistical questions. A particular focus of discussion was classroom management since Janet had some "difficult students that any teacher would find difficulty with." Marilynn would frequently reassure Janet of the appropriateness of her strategies. "I was just trying to give her emotional support and say, 'Look, don't take it personally. It's not you. You're really trying. Anybody would have problems with these kids.'"

During the second semester, their interactions became less formal yet more frequent when a change in their teaching duties eliminated their common free period, but brought them together during their lunch duties and they began to discuss issues on the way to and from the cafeteria and during lunch duty. Likewise, at any time of the day, Janet would show something to Marilynn or ask her a question or share a concern. "Lunch time yesterday, she said, 'I want to give this essay exam to my classes, what do you think of it?' and we looked at the questions and we talked about it a little bit and we shared ideas on it."

Their peer observations sessions were, as were Andrew and Caroline's, of limited value in Marilynn's view. "The peer observation wasn't so crucial to us ... we got our greatest satisfaction out of talking to each other in general and discussing issues and concerns and not so much the exact what-went-on-in-a-given-class." They did observe one another on a number of occasions, but did not necessarily follow the prescribed steps of peer

observation. "I wouldn't call it real peer coaching. We observed one another and we talked about it."

Like Caroline, Janet quickly became an active participant of department activities. She became an advisor of the Spanish Club and was a frequent contributor to departmental discussions. Marilynn attributes Janet's smooth integration to her "natural confidence" which made it easy for her to ask for advice and suggestions, not just from Marilynn, but from the other members of the department as well.

In assessing the relationship, Marilynn noted that because Janet had some teaching experiences, she required little guidance from Marilynn so that the relationship quickly evolved into a more reciprocal one. "It was more of a sharing relationship, although she did come to me with problems because she did have some difficulties in some of her classes. She was very open to talk about those and to talk about solutions."

Amber and Julie

Upon learning that an additional elementary music teacher would be hired, Amber, a music teacher, was inspired to become a mentor as she recalled those who had mentored her when she was a young musician and later, a beginning teacher. Amber was matched with Julie, a neophyte teacher who had earned an undergraduate degree in music education the year before and had spent the year following graduation as a part-time teacher. Seeking full-time employment, she applied for and was hired to fill the opening in Morgan.

Amber and Julie quickly set up weekly meetings. Their early discussions revolved around logistics and administrative tasks. Amber carefully guided Julie through the quagmire of bureaucratic obligations. "She had to write out goals and I helped her do that. I showed her how to do evaluations and she even wrote some for me and I went over them with her. I sort of led her through the year in terms of little things like that that had to be done." Amber also shared some of her materials and curricula in order to provide Julie with direction in her own curriculum. "I gave her a list of materials I used last year, so she could go on from there." In large part, though, their encounters were characterized by Amber asking Julie "how things were going and if there was there anything I could help her with" to which Julie would respond that "things are fine." Julie would rarely initiate the conversation nor ask Amber questions or present concerns for feedback.

At their first peer observation session in November, Amber was distressed by what she saw. "What I saw in her classroom was chaos. I was not thrilled, but I felt like, 'What can I do?' because this is a peer observation." In their post-observation conference, Amber found herself being very directive with Julie, responding to her as she would a student teacher. "I

couldn't help myself—I wrote down, 'Why don't you try—' you know. I wrote a list of things, as I would for a student teacher." Amber found Julie "open to those ideas, so it was okay." Still, Amber was disappointed that Julie had not confided in her about the difficulties she was experiencing in the classroom and was disheartened that Julie had not asked for advice or guidance.

Subsequent peer observations saw little change in Julie's management skills. "What I saw [the next time] was still chaos, maybe worse." Julie had also received an unsatisfactory first evaluation from the principal and had received complaints from a number of classroom teachers, yet she remained steadfast in her assertions to Amber that improvement was being made. Amber, however, remained skeptical. "They [the lessons] weren't better. I didn't see what was different to make them better."

Even more disquieting for Amber was Julie's apparent lack of awareness of, or unwillingness to admit to, the extent to which things were not fine in her classes. "I'm not sure if she's aware of the extent to which they are not fine. I don't know.... Well, maybe she admits it to herself, but I never saw any dismay from her.... Probably she wasn't being honest with herself. I don't know." Julie would never share her difficulties with Amber and Amber did not feel that she could broach problems if Julie did not bring them up. She said, "we would talk about that [classroom management] if she brought it up. I didn't feel that I could bring it up if she didn't bring it up. I mean, as her mentor, I'm not supposed to go in and say, 'Now, you should know this.' Right?'"

Amber described their relationship as "cordial. Not real close." She remained frustrated at the limited communication between her and Julie as well as Julie's unwillingness to confide in her. "If she could have told me, 'I'm totally lost,' I would have had a place to really get in and work with her and help her, but because I never got that, I didn't feel that I could initiate that. Even if I did initiate that, it wasn't something that she wanted to hear. And there's just a distance with her in a way that didn't allow that."

Debbie and Hannah

Debbie was a kindergarten teacher and the only one of the group who had previously participated in the district-run mentor program. Two years before, although there were no new kindergarten teachers, Debbie volunteered to work with the new art teacher, Allison. Allison was a neophyte teacher who was overwhelmed by her job duties and by events in her personal life. Debbie spent a lot of time with Allison, giving her emotional support and pedagogical guidance. Their relationship evolved into a very close friendship, and during the following year, their friendship continued to prosper. After this very positive experience, Debbie decided to re-apply

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for the mentor program. Since there was once again no new kindergarten teachers, Debbie chose to be matched up with Hannah, the new elementary art teacher, thinking "I had the art teacher last time, it worked great."

Unlike the other pairs, Debbie and Hannah never established a regular meeting time; rather they would meet when the need arose and it was convenient for them. Their initial conversations focused on logistics and administrative duties. Debbie shared some of the "tricks" with Hannah that had worked for Allison during the first weeks of school, and Hannah came to Debbie for help with some administrative tasks and goal-setting. "The beginning of the year was all the what-you-need-to-know and don't know, and name tags and don't-forget-this and don't-forget-that."

Beyond that, however, Hannah showed herself to be "very independent" and not in need of the moral support which Allison had required. "She came in very prepared-knew exactly how she wanted to set up the classroom and what she wanted to teach.... She knew what she was going to do as far as teaching and she didn't need the emotional kind of connection that [Allison] did." Further, Hannah was working closely on curriculum with the art teacher in one of the other elementary schools in town. As a result, formal meetings became rare. Instead, the two would chat occasionally when their paths crossed. "Most of our discussions are informal, at lunch or in the hallway, before school, things like that."

In late autumn, a smoldering conflict exploded between the three kindergarten teachers and Hannah over the teaching of art in kindergarten. Debbie, who agreed philosophically with her grade level colleagues, found herself in potential open conflict with Hannah, her mentor-partner and so opted not to take a public stand on the issue. Of this she said, "I really didn't want to jeopardize the relationship—I'm not a confrontational person, either." Despite Debbie's attempts to find a compromise, Hannah remained steadfast in her approach to teaching art, with the kindergarten teachers equally steadfast in their opposition to her approach. Debbie decided to "leave it alone and do nothing about it because — because she's my mentee."

Debbie admits she was surprised and hurt by Hannah's reaction: surprised that an inexperienced teacher could "feel so strongly about" and be "so entrenched in that theory" and hurt that Hannah was not receptive to or perhaps respectful of Debbie's extensive experience in kindergarten, leading Debbie to conclude, "It's really stubbornness." Debbie recognizes that the way the kindergarten teachers broached the subject may have put Hannah on the defensive and made her unwilling to compromise. "Maybe she just put up her armor and just can't take it down, I don't know."

Debbie continued to work with Hannah, having peer coaching sessions and talking about things "other than school and teaching, like her health, her week-end plans, etc." Their peer coaching sessions, which they did "probably six or seven times, maybe eight," would focus on particular

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aspects of classroom management and were carefully orchestrated to avoid any kind of pedagogical or curricular discussion.

In the spring, Hannah had a school-wide art show, so Debbie gave her a lot of assistance with setting up as well as moral support and practical advice in dealing with parent volunteers who were quick to criticize Hannah's organization. In this situation, Hannah was quite receptive to Debbie's comments, but curriculum discussions remained off-limits.

After a successful art show, Debbie and Hannah seemed to have found a more stable ground upon which to build a relationship and were able to relate to one another better, yet the curriculum issue remained a constant source of tension. "So it has gotten better, but the same underlying philosophy is still there, so ... it put me in a bad position as a mentor, I think."

In spite of their rather tumultuous beginning, Debbie describes her relationship with Hannah as "positive, not intense, more casual than intense and not very mentor-like because she really didn't need or want a mentor." Debbie attributes much to Hannah's self-confidence, explaining that she was "so sure of herself that—or at least it came off that way-that it was hard for me to be a mentor in a lot of ways."

EXAMINING PHASES OF MENTORING

In all four of these relationships, there appears to have been no period of familiarization such as those found in the relationships which Phillips-Jones (1982) and Kram (1983) studied. In light of the formalized nature of the relationship and the specified and limited time allocation set for these relationships, this finding comes as no surprise.

The cultivation phase was the dominant feature in these relationships, although it developed to different degrees. Andrew and Caroline's relationship blossomed as Andrew fulfilled both career functions—helping Caroline become familiar with the routines of the school and administrative obligations, and psychosocial functions—helping her become a more effective teacher and colleague while providing some emotional support. From a Gray and Gray (1985) perspective, their relationship began at the Mp phase with Andrew the more knowledgeable guiding and advising the less experienced Caroline in areas of management, teaching strategies, and administrative procedures. While there is little evidence to suggest that the relationship became one of equals (MP) in terms of joint projects, shared learning, or mutual contributions, Andrew did acknowledge Caroline's growing expertise in curricular issues. "She seems to have so much confidence in those matters [curricula] that there's no need for my input there." Moreover, Caroline's willingness to disagree with Andrew's advice ("She wasn't willing to accept that you could be willing to accept that a class just wasn't going to be with you.") further suggests that their relation-

ship was evolving into a more collegial, open relationship of equals. At the end of the year Andrew's confidence in Caroline's pedagogical and curricular skills and knowledge and his willingness to attribute her successful integration into the department and school culture to Caroline's own efforts implies a further shift to the mP phase.

Marilynn and Janet's relationship also flourished in this phase. Marilynn fulfilled similar functions to Andrew, as she helped Janet understand the administrative expectations and department culture and assisted Janet in becoming successfully integrated into the department. She also supported her psychosocially by providing Janet with moral support and pedagogical guidance as she struggled with some difficult classroom management issues. Framing the relationship in Gray and Gray's (1985) model, initial interactions between the two fit into the Mp phase as Marilynn directed Janet through administrative requirements and expectations; however, their relationship evolved quickly to the MP phase. "We had a lot to share as colleagues, and much as I would give her advice on certain things, she would give me advice on other things." Because Janet had already taught for six years, she was able to adjust quickly to her new school environment once appraised of the expectations. Consequently, conversations between Janet and Marilynn could focus more on finer pedagogical or curricular issues. While Marilynn offered support and suggestions to Janet as she sought alternate strategies for classroom management, Janet would also draw from her teaching experience to offer ideas and suggestions to Marilynn in response to some difficulties Marilynn voiced with one class in particular. By the end of the school year, Janet would occasionally check in with Marilynn for feedback on ideas or projects, but in essence she became self-directed (mP phase).

For Amber and Debbie, their respective relationships did not thrive well in the cultivation phase. Just as Andrew and Marilynn had attempted, Amber sought to fulfill both career (explaining procedures and administrative requirements) and psychosocial (helping her become a more effective teacher) functions. In spite of Amber's consistent efforts to engage Julie in conversation and to provide her with suggestions for improvement, Julie was largely non-responsive to Amber's overtures. As a result, their relationship never moved beyond the Mp phase. Debbie also started with a focus on career functions (explaining procedures and expectations), and tried to move to psychosocial functions, but met with resistance as Hannah conveyed a disinterest in moral support or pedagogical guidance from Debbie. Hannah seemed particularly aloof to Debbie's attempts to discuss curricular issues, especially the teaching of art, her area of expertise, in Hannah's estimation. In their relationship, the Mp phase was initiated with difficulty and did not develop or evolve. Debbie's attempts to teach Hannah "the ropes" administratively were accepted, but similar overtures in matters of pedagogy or curriculum were rejected by Hannah. In the spring, when Debbie's help with the art show proved beneficial to Hannah,

Debbie was still unable to "sell Hannah on what to do" (Gray & Gray, 1985, p. 41) in terms of teaching art.

The separation/parting phase was not a naturally occurring phase in these relationships. The imposed time limit of one year pre-determined the onset of this phase whether the relationship had evolved to that point or not. For Amber and Debbie, the end of the yearlong relationship was a welcome milestone, while Andrew and Marilynn were less anxious to see the relationship come to an end. Both anticipated that even with the end of the "formal" relationship, their respective relationships would be redefined based on the special connection they had made with their partners over the course of the year. As Marilynn noted, "I feel that even though the official mentoring relationship is over, we'll always sort of have a special rapport."

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCE IN PHASES

The absence of the phase of initiation or mutual admiration in these case studies raises important questions about the evolution of the mentor relationship in school settings and the foundation upon which the relationship is built. If the first phase of the relationship serves to establish the essential psychological connection between the two members, how can the connection be made in its absence? For Andrew and Caroline, the presumption of a foundation seemed to have been willingly accepted by both participants. Caroline, the protégé, was willing to attribute to Andrew appropriate respect for his years of experience in education, acknowledging that he possessed knowledge of value to Caroline. Moreover, she accepted that Andrew had her best interests at heart so that his advice would, in fact, benefit her. "I did come in with some things that I wanted to do—and fortunately it's the sort of thing that Caroline agreed was important and she was willing to go along with." For Andrew as mentor, that trust and respect was conveyed by acknowledging and responding to the needs of Caroline as she defined them.

The more that a new teacher or a teacher new to a system feels a need for guidance and mentoring, then the more the mentor has to be willing to give. If the new teacher has the kind of self-assurance that Caroline had from the start, then the mentor has to be willing to say, "Okay, you take care of it. Call me when you need me," without completely shutting down.

For Marilynn and Janet, the necessary trust and respect were quickly assumed and accepted, enhanced perhaps by a mutual recognition of shared values as well as a strong affinity for one another. Marilynn admitted that she saw in Janet a younger version of herself, which, for Marilynn, highlighted Janet's potential. Janet also spoke of similarities in personality between the two, making the foundational qualities of trust and respect easier to sustain.

In Amber and Debbie's relationships, these foundational elements were lacking to varying degrees, preventing their relationships from evolving as hoped. Amber seemed to have entered the relationship with the requisite foundation of trust and respect in place, assuming her junior colleague possessed the potential to be successful and looking forward to an evolving relationship that would lead eventually to a mutually rewarding one. While Julie clearly conveyed a respect for Amber's expertise and experience as she timidly responded to Amber's numerous suggestions for curriculum and management, she was unable to confide in Amber, apparently seeing in Amber an evaluator to be feared rather than a colleague to be trusted. From Amber's perspective, "She probably perceived me as someone with some power, so that she was-seemed a little bit uncomfortable with me-probably."

As Amber interacted with Julie, she found herself challenging the assumptions she had made at the onset and reassessing Julie's potential to teach. She began to see Julie as "not secure enough in who she is yet and she's floundering in many ways." For her part, Julie could not overcome her perception of Amber as a hierarchical superior who had an evaluative function over Julie.

Debbie entered this second formal mentor relationship with a number of assumptions and biases. Because she had been successful in her previous relationship, she knew that she possessed valuable and worthwhile knowledge which she assumed would be equally valuable to her new junior colleague. Moreover, she fully expected that her new partner would have as much potential as her previous partner (and to a certain extent, expected her to be as needy). Thus, the foundational qualities of trust and respect were fully developed in Debbie as she began to work with Hannah.

Hannah, on the other hand, came into the relationship with a different set of assumptions. While she may have considered Debbie's knowledge of the school procedures and culture to be of worth, she did not hold Debbie's curricular or pedagogical knowledge in high regard. Because of her limited respect for Debbie's knowledge base, Hannah saw little benefit in a relationship with Debbie and conveyed a disinterest in establishing the requisite foundation to embark on the relationship. This lack of appreciation for her knowledge base is what upset Debbie most. "I was disappointed, I guess. I didn't feel as—that I was really needed that much and that—if I'm going to do it and put the time into it and go to those meetings, and think about what I'm doing, I want to think that I'm worthwhile, and I didn't feel that worthwhile, I guess."

IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

School-based mentoring programs continue to have a large following of supporters who see in them an efficient and effective avenue to help new

teachers adjust more readily to their new teaching environment and to give them oft-needed support and guidance as they redefine themselves in their newly chosen profession (Odell & Ferraro, 1992; Tellez, 1992). More and more states either mandate or urge the establishment of mentor programs to help retain new teachers in an increasingly tight job market. (See for example Connecticut's BEST program or California's Mentor Program.)

Ensuring that these relationships are in fact beneficial to new teachers means, in part, facilitating the successful development of these short-term relationships in the absence of the requisite time needed to allow the relationship to evolve through the different phases, each of which appears to serve an important role in the life of the relationship. From these case studies, it was clear that the cultivation or development stage is the essential phase during which both mentors and protégés benefit. Thus, it would be tempting to eliminate the initiation phase so that two participants quickly embark on the most productive phase of the relationship. However, as was evident in two of the four relationships studied, the absence of the initiation phase led to cultivation phases which were relatively unproductive and of limited, if any, benefit to either mentor or protégé.

It may also be tempting to assume the existence of such foundational qualities as mutual respect and trust in these newly formed relationships. However, the findings of these case studies highlight the importance of building these qualities during this first phase of the relationship. Since such a short-term relationship may not have the luxury of time to evolve naturally, more artificial means may be required in order to allow for the development of productive mentor-protégé relationships.

One option may be to allow for something resembling an initiation phase by introducing mentor and protégé as early as possible, before the school year gets underway. Perhaps through periodic exchanges over the summer months, the two members could begin to develop the foundational qualities for a productive relationship. A second option might be to have each partner explicitly share expectations for the relationship in terms of what each believes he or she can contribute to the other's experience and what each believes he or she will gain from the other. Through this sharing, the two partners might come to know one another more quickly, thus potentially accelerating the development of mutual trust. A third option is to have discussions of purposes and expectations occur before mentors are paired and have program coordinators use this information to pair mentors and mentees appropriately. A final potential approach would be to build in trust building activities to mentor/mentee training programs and provide activities they could use in their private meetings to foster mutual understanding and respect.

The results of my analysis clearly emphasize that to be successful, mentoring relationships must be built upon some common goals, values, and understandings. Those designing programs and those wishing to mentor or be mentored must be cognizant of this reality, diligent about fostering

this commonality, and imaginative about how to assist and support mentors and mentees in establishing common agendas.

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CHAPTER 13

MENTORING AND TEACHER INDUCTION
Hearing the Voices of Change

Arlene Martin

This chapter provides insights into the effective elements of successful mentoring relationships by sharing the voices of five mentor/mentee pairs, looking particularly at the quality of mentor/protégé relationships and their impact on the life of each participant. The qualitative research study posed the questions:

1. What does a mentoring experience mean to a mentor and to a protégé, and
2. How does a mentoring experience benefit each person in the relationship?"

The study sought to examine the processes that occur within the context of a mentoring relationship and identify ways the relationship changes or transforms the personal and professional development of both mentor and protégé. The literature informing this study was drawn from the areas of adult learning and teacher development (Daloz, 1986, 1983; Erikson, 1959; Jones, 1982; Katz, 1972; Kegan, 1982; Knowles, 1980; Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, & McKee, 1978; Merriam & Caffarella, 1991; Oja, 1980), developmental supervision (Acheson & Gail, 1987; Cogan, 1973; Fenichel, 1992; Glickman, 1990), and transformation theory (Cranton, 1994; Daloz, 1983; Gould, 1978; Mezirow, 1991).

The California Early Childhood Mentor Teacher Program was chosen as the setting for the research study because it is a model program among mentor training programs, as well as being the oldest and largest of 15 national mentor programs. A distinguishing feature of this program is that it is institutionalized within the California State Department of Education, receiving public funding and is a part of the California Community College System. The CECMTP began in 1988 as a pilot program of the Child Care Employee Project (now NCECW, the National Center for the Early Childhood Workforce) and Chabot College with a budget of $40,000. It received $280,000 in funding over two-and-a half years from a consortium of foundations: United Way of the Bay Area, the David and Lucille Packard Foundation, the American Express Foundation, the Center for Career Development in Early Care and Education at Wheelock College, the Stulsatt Foundation, the Conrad F. Hilton Foundation, the San Francisco Foundation, the Clorox Company Foundation, and the ARCO Foundation.

Since 1993, the program has been entirely funded by federal Child Care and Development Block Grant (CCDBG) funds with an annual budget of $669,496. Administration is by the Chabot-Las Positas Community College District through a contract with the California Department of Education. The program now operates in 50 community colleges in California. The program places early childhood education students in community-based field settings (centers, family child care homes, school-age programs, or Head Start) for completion of their practicum requirement under the supervision of a mentor. Mentors complete a course in adult supervision and apply to a selection committee. Once selected, mentors use their own classrooms as a training environment and earn stipends for time spent in supervision of student teachers and continued in-service training. Program evaluation conducted by the NCECW has shown changes in teaching skills between student teachers who had worked with mentors in the CECMTP and other students participating in a more traditional college lab school practicum. Other successes reported indicate increased leadership in the field by mentors who have begun organizing meetings, and outreach forums at conferences and other events to advocate for the program. A promising outcome has been the approval of a revised state permit that formally designates a new master teacher position for mentors, which will help to recognize and institutionalize the mentor's role in state-subsidized programs (1995, Program Profile CECMTP Annual Report).

DATA COLLECTION

Between 1995–1996, CECMTP program participants were surveyed and interviewed in a pilot study and two focus groups were conducted. These

pilot studies provided the background for the descriptive study of early childhood teachers using in-depth interviews of five mentors and five protégés. Twenty-five participants from the pilot study were selected from the respondents to the initial survey and from these, 10 subjects representing 5 mentor/protégé groups, volunteered to participant in the in-depth study. In the fall of 1996, data were collected from these five mentor/protégé groups. Throughout this chapter the term used to describe pairs of mentors and protégés engaged in mentoring relationships are referred to as dyads.

Individual dyad interviews with all 10 respondents were conducted. Nine open-ended questions guided the interviews which were tape recorded and transcribed (see Table 1).

These individual interviews were followed by videotaped three-way interviews that included me, the mentor, and the protégé. The three-way interview protocol included the following questions:

1. Can you describe your mentoring experience?
2. What meaning has it had for both of you?
3. Has the experience changed you in any way you are willing to share?
4. What does mentoring mean for the field of early childcare and education?

All interviews were conducted over a four-day period. Each individual interview ranged from one-and-a half to two hours and the three-way interviews took from two to three hours. Two of the dyad interviews were conducted in southern California and the remaining three interviews were conducted in northern California. I also kept extensive field-notes on the

TABLE 1
Individual Interview Questions

1.	Describe your relationship with your mentor or protégé.
2.	Describe a typical day with your mentor or protégé.
3.	Can you identify elements or qualities in your mentoring process?
4.	Have you changed personally and/or professionally as a result of your mentoring relationship?
5.	What factors do you think caused you to change?
6.	Do you feel that you have benefitted from this relationship? In what ways?
7.	The literature on mentoring describes the relationship in terms of "I-Thou." What meaning does this have for you?
8.	Is this mentoring relationship like a student/teacher relationship or is it different? In what ways?
9.	What, if any, changes has your mentoring had on your practice as an early childhood teacher?

interview sessions that included my impressions of the mood, any problems or difficulties, and my general impressions of the whole process. A research assistant also kept field-notes during the three-way interviews.

The primary research focus of the interviews was to identify whether any personal or professional transformation had occurred for either the mentor or protégé and if so what that transformation consisted of. A multi-modal approach to data collection using two types of interviewing processes and extensive observation, recorded through field-notes was used to enhance trustworthiness of the findings. Individual and dyad interviews provided insight into the responses to questions when the two members of the dyad were interviewed in each other's presence and clarified the importance and meaning of their relationship.

I relied on videotapes and the field-notes taken by a research assistant during the three-way interviews to process information about length, duration, intensity, strength, and quality of the relationship based on mentor/protégé descriptions and experiences. Using videotaped interviews helped to understand mentor/protégé stories of their relationship. Seidman (1991) suggests that telling stories is one way human beings have devised to make sense of themselves and their social world. These "stories" were contextualized throughout the literature on adult/teacher development and transformation theory and helped frame the dyad profiles.

The dyad interview format also allowed for a deeper look into the mentor/protégé relationship. These videos provided a bridge between the words of the dyads and their interactions, verbal and non-verbal. Further, they provided me with a view of the uniqueness that marked each relationship. The dyad profiles constructed from data taken during three-way interviews between me and the mentor and protégé were able to inform me of a deeper understanding of the relationships.

DATA ANALYSIS

Once data had been collected from field-notes and interviews, audio and video interview tapes were transcribed and information was coded, categorized, and analyzed using an open-coding system. Analysis of the interviews was conducted using a software package, HyperResearch, designed specifically to manage data in qualitative/sociological analyses. The software program is capable of developing matrices and categories, and building theory. The analytic process consisted of three distinct levels. The researcher identified words, phrases, and benchmarks that described subjects' perceptions of their mentor and protégé experiences and identified change processes described. For example, protégés identified "mentor preparation" as a dimension of mentoring that facilitates the development of the relationship. One protégé believed that her initial mentoring expe-

rience was unsuccessful because her mentor had had no preparation for her role as a mentor. The protégé felt dissatisfied and terminated the relationship.

The data were analyzed for emergent themes and concepts. Comparisons were made and data were labeled and grouped to form categories (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Mentor relationships were analyzed qualitatively for their impact and their strength. Charts with keywords, concepts, and themes were developed to categorize the data. Examples of such concepts or themes are *benefit, change, closeness, comfort, communication, confidence, empowerment, feedback, gifts/strengths, intimacy, openness/encouragement, reciprocity, risk.*

Major themes and subthemes were created if references to them were found in more than half of the three-way and individual interviews. Common references were recorded if they occurred more than ten times in each set of interviews. Three levels of coding and analysis were used. An open-coding system was used at the first level of data analysis. I reviewed transcriptions for key words appearing in each participant interview. In level two coding, I used a more in-depth review of the interview transcripts that constituted a focused coding system. Sample categories surfaced, including elements such as, *regularity, mutuality, comprehensiveness, tension, collegiality* and processes of: *inquiry, dialogue, reflection,* and *collaboration.* In the first round of coding, referred to as open-coding, 267 open codes were identified. Examples of level one codes are:

- opportunity to challenge self professionally
- high level of confidence in mentor
- gained respect through mentoring
- mentoring expands early childhood field

In the second level of coding text, a selective coding process using abbreviated, directional phrases was applied. The term "directional" as used by HyperResearch refers to descriptive codes that point toward two ends of a single scale. Its purpose is to analyze the data and test hypotheses. Examples of directional codes follow:

- greatly improved my classroom practice
- promotes high skill level in communication and feedback
- increased levels of self-confidence and self-esteem
- high fulfillment in advocacy and leadership roles

Items were also grouped into larger categories: *strength/weaknesses* (within the relationship), *dimensions, benefits* (to mentor and protégé) and transformation (changes identified by subjects). This helped to isolate patterns, trends, or themes. Finally, relationships between the most frequently

identified dimensions described in the interviews were gleaned from the data.

In the third level of analysis, another more focused and selective coding was utilized. In this manner, the relationships of various mentors and protégés were compared to generate the patterns, themes or implicit theories that emerged in the data to support the researcher's concept of transformation. This final data analysis identified 16 dimensions integral to the mentoring process in the perceptions of the mentors and protégés interviewed in this study. These dimensions include: *trust, openness, acceptance, encouragement, support, comfort level, knowledge, expertise, communication, feedback, reflection, reciprocity, mutuality, empowerment, risk,* and *vision.*

Mentors and mentees experienced mentoring in 5 phases. In Phase One, *building the relationship,* six dimensions appeared in the data: *trust, openness, acceptance, comfort level, encouragement and support.* Phase Two, *building an agenda,* included the dimensions of *knowledge* and *expertise.* In Phase Three, *building an information exchange,* three dimensions emerged: *feedback, communication and reflection.* In Phase Four, *laying the groundwork for change,* the dimensions of *reciprocity* and *mutuality* occured. Finally, in Phase Five, *moving to transformation,* the dimensions of *empowerment, risk, and vision* were present. These five phases can be conceived of as a spiraling interactions, denoting the fluid processes within such relationships. This conceptual framework suggests that these phases are flexible, occurring over time in one or more periods rather than being separate and distinct stages as has been traditionally suggested in the mentoring literature. Major themes about mentoring emerging from the perceptions of mentors and protégés include the following:

- Mentoring builds a foundation for growth and change
- Mentoring promotes personal development
- Mentoring promotes professional growth
- Mentoring changes both mentors and protégés
- Mentoring provides benefits to both mentors and protégés

Repeated throughout mentor/protégé voices were subthemes that will be discussed in the dyad profiles which follow.

DYAD PROFILES

Gherke (1988) states that in order to study mentoring one needs to conduct research that she defined as "affectionate research." In her view, it is not possible to look at mentoring relationships through an experimental lens. She believes that such research must be conducted qualitatively

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through a lens of the heart. Her notion reminds one of the story of *The Little Prince*, in which the fox tells the little prince his secret:

> And here is my secret, a very simple secret: It is only with the heart that one can see rightly; what is essential is invisible to the eye. (De Saint-Exupery, 1943, 79)

This is what Gherke meant by "affectionate research"—that one must bring one's heart to the study of mentoring or risk missing the essential way of viewing the relationship. The very nature of the mentoring relationship requires a different way of knowing about the phenomenon, precisely because the study of the relationship is bound by intimate profound experiences and endless sources of self-disclosure. There is a dynamism in this complexity by which the relationship, as a helping relationship, becomes almost a therapeutic one (Mezirow, 1991, 168). This was especially evident for the five mentor/protégé dyads in their three-way video-taped interviews.

Each three-way interview was videotaped during a three hour interview session following individual interviews and in the mentor/protégés work setting. A research assistant was utilized to assist in this process attending to video equipment and gathering field notes. Each videotape was viewed three times for the purpose of analyses. These interviews were characterized by feelings of genuine caring and respect, by a sense of commitment to each other's process, and by a sense of loyalty to the individual person akin in some sense to a loving relationship. In each interview session, a feeling that something spiritual had transpired between the dyads was evident in their level of dialogue and disclosure. The sharing of one's experience was like a celebration, and indeed each person thanked the other person for the "gifts" he or she had received in the relationship. The 5 excerpts which follow present a short profile of some of these dyads to convey the meaning of the dyad's experience from their perceptions. The profiles presented here are not meant to be all inclusive of the research conducted. Rather, they present a brief picture of the essence of these relationships in an effort to transmit their meaning to the reader and also to demonstrate the value of "affectionate research" which gets to the soul and spirit of a situation rather than just to the intellectual domain.

I assigned the qualities within the relationships that most characterized each dyad. This quality describes the "feel" of the relationship as perceived from participation in and analysis of individual interview audio-tapes, three-way interview tapes (video), and field-notes. These profiles convey the "meaning perspective" of the dyad according to the work on transformative learning in adult development by Mezirow (1991).

Case 1: Attentiveness—Grace and Nancy

Attentiveness describes the central quality of this relationship because the mentor, Grace, had a certain quietness and calmness amid her warmth, which emerged as a key ingredient in the effectiveness of their relationship. Her very style was a challenge to Nancy, the protégé, because it was so different from the protégé's own ebullient personality. Nancy's enthusiasm and different personality from her mentor became obvious when she was unable to stop adding just one more thought despite the knowledge that her interview was no longer being recorded. The pair seemed an unlikely match except for the mutual respect and regard they expressed for each other in their three-way interview.

Grace had many years of experience in the field, and though her age and experience set the two participants apart, it also brought them together. It appeared that the mentor's expertise, skills and resources met the needs of this protégé. This was a protégé who expressed her need for her mentor's knowledge. Only six months earlier, Nancy's formative experience with children had been as a baby-sitter. In Grace's interview, she stated repeatedly that Nancy had enormous inner resources as a novice teacher, though she lacked confidence in herself. Nancy's insight into the nature of young children, and her boundless enthusiasm served her well and endeared her to Grace, her mentor.

It was their different personalities that actually made these two a good match, for they balanced each other very well. Grace clearly admired Nancy's creative talents, energy, and enthusiasm. Grace stated, "She challenges my creative edge. I learn from her." Nancy clearly appreciated her mentor's calm, patience, and "attentiveness" to her needs and the fact that she provided her with a structure in which to organize herself, calling on her to stay on task. From this, Nancy learned the importance of self-regulation, a skill most necessary for her to understand what infants and toddlers need to learn in their earliest developmental stages. Nancy stated, "Grace's respect for my process enabled me to learn how to be a support for others." She went on to describe what she considers a transformational learning process for herself:

> I learned so much from watching Grace that I knew that I needed to know. Just watching Grace's ability to stop in the moment, figure out, make a decision ... okay, this situation means that so and so ... and I'd start hearing the little pieces of knowledge and then I'd have that piece and then just by watching her, I could start figuring out how she's thinking. So I really model that. That's a crucial piece of what I've learned. I also learned how to have faith in myself. I've learned so much from her. I feel really lucky ... really empowered as a student and as a teacher to have had this opportunity. I'm really glad that I went through it with Grace.

There appeared to be no ego involvement in this relationship. There was simply a fondness and a deep appreciation for what each of them brought to the relationship. This theme resonated in each of the 5 three-way interviews. Because their styles were so very different, both confided that they had done a lot of reflecting on the new ideas and new ways of doing things. Nancy was able to self-reflect, saying, "My chattiness gets in the way sometimes." She recognized Grace's strength of character and perseverance in keeping her on task, which helped transform Nancy from an unconfident, undisciplined teacher to a self-confident, organized, and respected teacher. Thus, although they were very different, they were both attentive to those differences and attentive to one another. They connected with one another's needs and used that to reflect upon their own needs.

Case 2: Non-judgement—Alex and Danice

The second dyad is characterized primarily by a quality of non-judgment. The mentor, Alex, provided an environment of safety and nurturing, both for his protégé and for the school-age children in his charge. As with the first dyad, this pair seemed an unlikely match: a Caucasian male mentor and an African-American female protégé whose previous long-term career had been in the insurance industry. A common factor was that they were about the same age. Both quickly recognized that neither one was pretentious. They had singular goals and similar expectations. An endearing feature of Danice's personality was her willingness to participate and be a part of the process immediately. Alex admired her willingness to jump right in. Danice was eager to learn from him. Of this she said, "I trusted his level of expertise. I saw how he interacted with the children. This is somebody I could learn from."

Alex saw a special quality in Danice, something that told him that she was going to be a terrific teacher. He protected her emotionally and provided her with a safe place to try new ideas, yet he challenged her and pushed her boundaries. He respected her willingness, even her need to ask a lot of questions, to get to the underlying reasons. Likewise, he found a personal value in this relationship. He expressed this benefit as giving him a voice. He said, "It made me realize that I have knowledge and I want to share it with others." He was validated, and his experience, skills, and expertise were affirmed as Danice accepted his advice in an unjudging manner even when she questioned or disagreed with his ideas.

In her individual interview, Danice was nervous and fairly quiet. As soon as she entered into a three-way interview with Alex present, her demeanor changed from reticent to engaged and reflective. She was calmer and

instantly more comfortable when her mentor entered into the dialogue. Clearly, Alex validated her and made her feel secure.

The friendship, closeness, and respect, and the non-judgmental feel of the dyad was evident. Further, each had changed the way the other saw him or herself in the context of their mentoring relations. They were more than teacher and student, more than friends. They transcended those roles, learned from each other and were changed. That was the meaning of transformation for each of them; that they were different from who they were when they began the process. There was evidently a real care and concern for one another and a high regard and a high comfort level were expressed. The interview ended sweetly, with Danice concluding, "I love you, Alex."

Case 3: Integrity—Maria and Jody

The members of this pair were both seasoned professionals, so each brought gifts of maturity and expertise to the relationship. The most prominent element in their relationship was reciprocity. Maria and Jody had a genuine "I-Thou" relationship. The protégé Jody, who was completing an undergraduate degree in early childhood education, had many years of paraprofessional experience working with young children in Head Start. She acknowledged that she "had to make the (mentoring) experience." She knew that she would get from Maria, her mentor, only as much as she herself gave to the relationship. Both agreed that mentoring offered them a revitalization in their careers and a renewal in their professions. It energized both mentor and protégé. "It's made me want to do so much more. I like helping. I see it as helping the field," said Maria.

Jody likened her experience to an apprenticeship. When questioned about her decision to be mentored rather than participate in a student teaching experience, she replied, "Why would you want to do it any other way? There's a real value in mentoring." She expressed her belief that mentoring offers a teacher candidate a different experience. She reported that she attended a student teaching seminar, which was comprised of a mixed group of student teachers, those being supervised traditionally and protégés who were in mentor relationships. The student teachers often complained of boredom in their roles. They also expressed feelings of "missing out" because the protégés appeared to have relationships and experiences that went so much deeper than their own student teaching experiences.

Maria, Jody's mentor, said that as a result of the mentoring experience, she had changed her practice: "I became a better teacher through mentoring because it makes me reflect back on my own teaching practice." When asked what she had gained, she replied, "I have no fear. I have something to share." This dyad presented a clearly comfortable, collegial relationship,

with obvious caring and enjoyment of each other. The willingness and acceptance of both partners to grow together were factors, which caused them to expand, reflect, and change, learning from each other, and transformed them both professionally and personally.

The role of advocacy and leadership emerged as a theme within this relationship. Both partners were mature women of similar ages who had been in the field for many years. There was a strong awareness that through their mentoring relationship, they were now ready to assume roles of advocacy and leadership in the field of early childhood education. Mezirow (1991) qualifies this as a transformation because there is a change in a meaning perspective that is, in this case, a changed perspective of "self." Maria challenged herself in her mentoring role to present her new found skills at national conferences and in state workshops. Jody who had always seen herself as a teacher identified with Maria in her mentoring role and concluded that she too would like to be a mentor for early childhood teachers. Each became stronger in their sense of "self" and resolved to continue their mentoring through advocacy and leadership roles.

Case 4: Trust—Dawn and Lorraine

This dyad was typified with a sense of well-being in which all things were as they should be and a sense of trust prevailed. There was a comfortable ease in this relationship. Although their formal relationship lasted for only a year, it was as if they had been together for many years. The mentoring relationship in which Dawn had been the mentor and Lorraine the mentee, had ended six months before their interview, but their relationship as co-workers was strong. They laughed, joked, giggled, and sought each other's opinions with mutual regard. More seriously, they expressed their deep appreciation for one another and said that their relationship had changed them both personally and professionally. As partners, they comfortably shared their fondness for each other and their memories of the beginnings of their relationship, which though different, was continuing.

Dawn, the mentor, an experienced professional in the field, was at the point of making a life change that included the possibility of leaving the field of education when she became aware of mentoring as a potential next level for her professional life. It became a much-needed renewal for her. In their quest to develop a trusting relationship, Dawn and Lorraine both found that a sense of humor helped them achieve that end and truly distinguished their relationship from the other dyads interviewed. Humor set the tone for their relationship to move forward and it created a space in which they could discuss, debate, and move each other to learn in new ways. Dawn described her protégé, Lorraine, as having maturity and an

ease with herself. She said, "I enjoyed the way Lorraine was with children. She handled feedback well, and took [the] initiative."

In their three-way interview, there was warmth and a genuine affection for each other. Dawn was a seasoned professional whose decision to remain in the field hinged on her mentor training. She said that this training renewed and revitalized her and gave her a new purpose as well as a new calling to remain connected to the field of education. It gave her permission to bring herself more fully to this relationship, to be more engaging and full of trust than she had been in other relationships.

Lorraine, the protégé, was a good deal younger than Dawn, a quick learner and an easy communicator. She was open and reflective. She disclosed a great deal regarding the transformative effects that mentoring had made in her life. She felt that her mentor "gave me permission to be myself." More importantly she said, "Dawn valued my ideas."

Their relationship typified mentoring in the classical sense. In her mentoring role, Dawn experienced a validation of her own knowledge, skills, and expertise. "I feel good about what I do. I feel valued. It's given me merit." The level of intimacy in this exchange caused her own practice to improve as she became more reflective of her own teaching practice. It moved her to become more sensitive to the children she taught. As a result of mentoring, she became more compassionate and gentler in her teaching style.

The level of trust and confidence that Dawn instilled changed Lorraine most profoundly. Not only did she say that her practice improved, but that she was able to use her new skills in communication, feedback, and reflection in her personal life with her family and in her work in the community. From her perspective, there was initially a mild discomfort in the relationship because she did not know how she fit into the existing teaching situation in her mentor's program. She had to find her own way, relax, trust and be at ease with the way things were in order to begin to have confidence in herself. This was her path, and this indeed was what she learned from the experience. Mentoring transformed her by enabling her to try new ways in teaching, to grow in her ability to risk in a safe environment, and to know that if it didn't work, that she was still all right. This "gift of wisdom" (Gherke, 1988), imparted from Dawn to Lorraine in the mentoring process, provided her with the willingness to trust.

Case 5: Kindness—Hope and Sherry

Kindness describes this mentor/protégé dyad. There was a high level of comfort in the relationship, as if they were one in spirit, one voice. The mentor, Hope, a warm, open, experienced professional, helped her protégé, Sherry, to feel at ease, enabling her to relax and enjoy the interview

process. Hope's maturity, insight and reflective, quiet nature suited her perfectly for a mentoring relationship. Sherry, also a mature woman, was known by her mentor prior to their working together. Hope saw her protégé as a strong leader and a voice within the community. She admired this leadership quality, and when she heard that she was in early childhood training as well, she sought Sherry out. This match process exemplifies a more classic mentor/protégé relationship in that the mentor "sees something in the protégé." As a result, an immediate personal connection bonded them in their roles.

This close connection provided strength to their relationship from the beginning. Their communication was very open and well developed. Hope did not push or force the process, but let it happen in its own time. Her style of mentoring utilized an open-ended inquiry style that helped move the process and allowed the relationship to unfold and develop at its own pace and within its own comfort level. Sherry recalled how this questioning practice was a part of how her mentor would guide her into problem-solving and reflective practice.

A major strength of their relationship was the kindness that existed between them. In that one quality, they were very much alike. Sherry disclosed that she was able to internalize the things that she learned through mentoring and bring them into her personal life as well. "I'm more of a role model for my own children. They see me as changing some of my speaking patterns, encouraging them. I practiced these skills on my own children."

Hope reflected on some of the moments of transformational learning that challenge and encourage her:

> I encourage them to risk. I say things...give them activities to get them to try new ways. I encourage the person to grow and to achieve. I'm challenged to see where they are. Why aren't they identifying what's happening? How can I help them discover on their own? It's like I want to be accepting of where people are, especially when it's mutual and I see someone really wants to grow. You know I want to help them find the tools to take with them. So I allow...I give my mentees, the first time I meet them. I ask them what would they like to know about me? What would they like to tell me about their life? I guess the openness, the availability, the trust, letting them be at ease... Sometimes when I know I have the relationship built, and I have a student that obviously had a situation that I see her maybe failing at, and I saw her insecurity and I saw her sweating...and then I saw her grasp how to handle it. She kind of looked up at me and try to nod to her to go ahead, it's okay. To see them go back and try the best they can. It can just be a look between us, once you establish that basic trust.

Both Hope and Sherry talked about the power of mentoring in transforming them personally and professionally, for each of them changed their career goals as a result of the relationship. They became more

invested in the field of early childhood education. The awareness that mentoring brought them filtered not only throughout their practice but into all of thier other relationships. Both of them looked to mentoring to expand their career goals and sought to grow as advocates and leaders in the field. The identification of advocacy and leadership through mentoring became a recurrent theme throughout the three-way interviews.

MENTORING THEMES

The five major themes that emerged in the mentor/protégé voices as they described processes of change affirm the process of transformation, which framed this research study. Mentor/protégé voices illuminate the metaphor and meaning of transformation explicated here. This process also applies to the growth experienced by the mentors and protégés profiled. They described their mentoring relations as empowering, risk and vision promoting, creating, changing, and transforming the ordinary events of their professional lives and personal lives. To view daily events through new eyes, to risk new ways of doing, being and communicating—these are the transformations they shared, that affected them through the mentoring process. The profoundness of the experience was not in the magnitude or even in the quantity of change that could be measured, but in the simple practices they learned from each other. These simple truths—of being and becoming in a relationship, those found in the 16 dimensions identified in these dyadic relationships—these were the change agents that transformed both mentor and protégé within the relationship.

The dimensions found in the larger study—trust, openness, acceptance, encouragement, support, comfort level, knowledge, expertise, communication, feedback, reflection, reciprocity, mutuality, empowerment, risk and vision—are reflected in the voices of the five dyads presented here. These dimensions were perceived to have had transformative effects on the personal and professional growth of mentors and protégés in the perceptions of research participants.

Mentoring transforms both mentor and protégé by providing them with opportunities and incentives to challenge them to continually improve their practice and their "professional self." Working with others and seeing varied possibilities, they can develop a new vision that moves them beyond their comfort level to risk-taking behaviors and in the process empowers them to become better teachers, better professionals, better people. For the mentor, mentoring is transformational in that it renews and revitalizes, or reenergizes the seasoned practitioner, providing a new vision as well. Further, it adds new skills, status, and financial rewards. Mentoring creates opportunities for personal empowerment and professional growth as both practitioners become more reflective and capable (Mezirow, 1991, 169).

For protégés in the relationship, mentoring offers a voice, a place to tell their stories, and to be validated in their experiences. This experience of having a "voice" was expressed in each interview and represented a difference between the mentor/protégé relationship and the experience of the student teacher in a traditional supervisory relationship. Since each of the protégés shared classes with people who were in these traditional roles, the protégés heard and felt these differences when they discussed their relationships during in-class seminars. Often, the student teachers were envious of the mentor relationships that protégés had. Some wished that they had chosen a mentoring field experience instead of the student teaching field experience. Others felt that they had been cheated in their relationships because they were not receiving the benefits of mentoring.

Protégés expressed the perceived differences between mentoring and student teaching in terms of the regularity of their meetings and in the fact that there was a mutual, reciprocal relationship in which each member was learning from each other. Most significantly, protégés had a voice in getting what they needed from the relationship. They viewed student teaching as a non-reciprocal, one-way relationship in which the student's agenda was set by the cooperating teacher or the field supervisor, and as a result, the relationship was perceived as imbalanced.

In many pre-service teacher preparation programs, faculty struggle with the issue of how best to balance the relationship of the cooperating teacher and the field supervisor in the practicum experience. Canning (1991) describes her experience with field students: "Student teachers, trained to please, defer to professors and supervisors for grades and positive evaluations, said that they had a voice but they had learned to withhold it" (p. 19).

Through mentoring, protégés were encouraged to find their voice, to use it, and to further challenge their mentors through a process of inquiry and risk. Experiencing a process personally allows the protégés to internalize it differently than if they had simply been told to do something they did not understand. So compelling were the mentor/protégé voices and stories that many dyads reported that they continue to remain connected to each other despite the "formal" ending of their mentoring relationship. There was much validation in the strength and quality, the depth of the relationship from each person interviewed.

The metaphor of story, journey and, in a figurative sense, transformation (Daloz, 1983; Levinson, et al.1978; Gilligan, 1977) permeate the literature on mentoring. Through their voices in this research study and in their experiences of personal storytelling, mentors and protégés were able to make sense of the dynamic and profound experiences they engaged in and to give voice to the changes or transformation they perceived as a benefit of their relationships.

Oddly enough, none of the protégé participants suggested that they were saddened by the end of the formal relationship. This may indicate a

satisfaction in knowing that they had reached a point of departure with their mentor, ending the need for dependence or simply a recognition that in mature relationships, all participant roles change and become something else. Does each story have an ending when the journey is over? It appears that the mentoring phenomenon has a way of repeating itself over time. Each one mentors another. Some of the protégés experienced such powerful changes that they were taking training to become mentors as well. Others were advancing their professional degrees, and still others were well on the way to becoming the leaders and advocates that they spoke of in their interviews.

CONCLUSION

Understanding the depth of the mentoring relationship and its powerful transformative effects on both the mentor and the protégé in both personal and professional domains, provides educational institutions with the tools to build "teachers," "leaders," and "advocates" while professionalizing the field. Throughout the interviews with mentor and protégé dyads, individuals reported that mentoring provided opportunities to transform their personal and professional "self." Directions for future research should include similar phenomenological studies on the mentoring relationship to further define its impact on the field of teacher preparation and practice.

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SECTION IV

MENTORING WOMEN AND MINORITIES IN THE WORKPLACE

Frances K. Kochan

The fourth set of chapters examines mentoring in the workplace within and beyond the school with a special focus on issues of gender and ethnicity. The chapters investigate programs designed to provide opportunities for advancement in positions of leadership that have traditionally been closed to or limited for females and minorities. The tales told explore programs designed to mentor women and minorities to enter leadership positions in education, computer science, and corporate health care. They present us with challenges as well as potential solutions to those challenges. The authors urge us to examine mentoring through new lenses and to see the potential dangers of establishing inappropriate mentoring programs or experiences for groups that are non-traditional. These chapters are an appropriate way to move toward a conclusion to this book as they point to important facets for the future of mentoring and bring the concept of transformation of self, organizations, and mentoring programs, processes, and relationships to an integrated whole.

MENTORING WOMEN IN EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Ernestine Enomoto, Mary Gardiner, and Margaret Grogan begin this section by challenging the field of educational leadership to reassess the manner in which women are socialized into their roles as school leaders. Their

comprehensive study, drawn from three states, concludes that traditional mentoring programs and relationships, based on a masculine model for educational leadership is neither appropriate nor sufficient for females in general or for women of color in particular. They suggest that the perceptions, experiences, and ways of leading of these individuals may be much different than those of their male counterparts. This chapter presents a unique framework for thinking about mentoring so that individual and organizational needs are addressed in meaningful and appropriate ways. The issues raised are of vital importance as we face a global society in which we will have to deal more fully with diverse cultural understandings. We must consider this diversity more comprehensively as we develop and implement mentoring programs and activities to foster personal and professional development and school leadership.

USING MENTORING TO ADVANCE FEMALES AND MINORITIES IN A CORPORATE ENVIRONMENT

Norma Mertz and Shari Lawrence Pfleeger open up a whole new world in our mentoring discussion by investigating corporate mentoring programs for women and people of color in the computer science field. Their powerful analysis of these efforts at three sites delves into the organizational and personal aspects of mentoring as it was conceived and implemented in these settings. The differences in the espoused and practiced corporate values and the perceptions of the mentors and mentees related to them are fascinating. The recommendations proposed for building successful programs for women and minorities in such environments is insightful and should be invaluable for those considering implementing such programs.

MATCHING MENTORS AND PROTÉGÉS: DYNAMICS OF RACE, ETHNICITY, GENDER, AND JOB LOCATION

Katherine Knight Wilcox concludes this section with her analysis of a mentoring program in a health care corporation with a special emphasis on mentoring issues related to ethnicity and race. The voices of those involved in these relationships speak eloquently of the benefits and the drawbacks of these relationships, which although sometimes successful, also engendered some discouragement. These voices remind us of the complexity of the mentoring process and warn us to guard against negative elements that can hinder personal and professional development. Dr. Wilcox's balanced perspective helps emphasize that mentoring is not a panacea that will bring instant success to individuals or organizations, but rather that men-

toring programs and relationships require careful planning, individual and organizational commitment, and vigilant assessment and revision if they are to meet their purposes and the human and organizational needs they are designed to address.

CHAPTER 14

MENTORING WOMEN IN EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Ernestine Enomoto, Mary E. Gardiner, and Margaret Grogan

In this chapter, we examine mentoring as a means by which women leaders can enter and redefine educational management and leadership. Generally, the process of mentorship involves having a more experienced school administrator counsel, guide, and assist a novice, thus easing their transition into the profession. Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson and McKee (1978) report that mentoring has traditionally been a critical step for men seeking to advance in educational administration. Typically, white men promoted those who were similar in race and gender, schooling them in leadership styles and the standards to be perpetuated. Presently, there are more women and minorities seeking to enter the profession. Thus, it is necessary to address the following questions:

- How will women and minorities gain counsel and advising?
- What is now shared in the mentoring experience concerning educational leadership and is it appropriate for these populations?
- How does mentoring affect an individual's professional career?
- How might mentoring encourage new definitions of leadership?

In conducting a study of mentoring relationships in three states, we sought answers to these questions by investigating good mentoring practices of successful women administrators. Our mentoring study (Gardiner, Enomoto & Grogan, 2000) contributes to the literature on women in leadership in three ways.

First, our research adds to the existing knowledge base on educational leadership and management as it relates to mentoring processes (Capper, 1993; Donmoyer, Imber & Scheurich, 1995; Marshall, 1994; Ortiz, 1982; Shakeshaft, 1989). It addresses the many changes currently occurring in educational leadership noted by others (Beck, 1992; Grogan, 1996; Henry, 1996; Noddings, 1984). These authors suggest that a new leadership model is emerging that is more collaborative, democratic and caregiving, than the traditional managerial, bureaucratic, and often rule-driven leadership style generally used in educational environments. Our study considers the role and potential role of mentoring relationships in fostering this changing leadership paradigm.

Secondly, the study contributes to the literature on mentoring practices for women in educational leadership. While the literature acknowledges the practice of mentorship in educational leadership (Aisenberg & Harrington, 1988; Edson, 1995), information is scant about what mentoring is and how it affects one's career, particulary for women in educational leadership (Merriam, 1983; Montenegro, 1993; Moore & Salimbene, 1981; Stalker, 1994). Our study was designed to clarify the workings of mentoring relationships for females in educational leadership by examining its activities, stages, and outcomes, and to determine what has worked successfully in these relationships.

Our research uses a feminist research framework (Capper, 1993; Davies, 1994; Weedon, 1997) to examine the mentoring phenomenon from women's perspectives and to draw upon their own voices, rather than simply contrasting or comparing their experiences with those of their male counterparts. Thus, we offer a third unique contribution to the literature by presenting women's accounts of power and oppression in their professional lives as educational administrators.

Our study reflects a collaborative approach in our work together as researchers and draws on our own experiences of mentoring, knowledge of K–12 public schooling, and the process of this collaboration to share with the reader. Our discussion in this chapter will focus on high quality mentoring practices that can be used to prepare the next generation of women to transform their roles as leaders and to help others do the same. For more details on the entire study, readers should refer to the book, *Coloring Outside the Lines: Mentoring Women Into School Leadership* (Gardiner, Enomoto, & Grogan, 2000).

FEMINIST RESEARCH FRAMEWORK

Utilizing feminist social science and ethnography as the conceptual and methodological frameworks in this study, we explored long term, professional relationships in K–12 public school organizations. Our interest in the topic was sparked by our roles as females in higher education adminis-

tration and leadership programs. Serving as advisors to graduate students, many of whom are women and minorities aspiring to positions in male-dominated administrative systems, we wanted to more fully understand whether mentoring endeavors needed to be reconstructed to assist those not traditionally hired as school leaders to succeed. We joined together to work collaboratively in this study to examine how we could best mentor our students and help others to do the same.

Our study sample was drawn from three states—Washington, Virginia, and Maryland. We decided to conduct interviews of females and minorities who were aspiring to become school principals. Initially, we developed specific guidelines for considering a mentor and protégé pairing and anticipated that we would have nine pairs per state or fifty-four participants in all. There were three criteria used in selecting interviewees. First, we selected protégés at the assistant principal level or higher. While there can be mentoring of teachers in instructional leadership, we restricted our study to those aspiring to become administrators. Second, we selected those protégés with long term relationships with mentors, based on the assumption that effective mentoring occurs over a sustained period of time. We also selected those who were involved in informal mentoring arrangements, rather than those paired through an internship or a formal staff development arrangement. Third, we asked that protégés identify persons instrumental in their career development and that mentors identify someone whom they considered as a mentee. Our final sample of 55 interviewees was made up of 51 women and 4 men and included 5 Hispanics, 14 African-Americans, and 26 Caucasians. The participants worked in urban, suburban and rural residential areas, with mentor-protégé relationships crossing numerous school systems.

Consistent with ethnographic techniques, we contacted the study participants, scheduled separate interview times for mentors and protégés, and conducted in-depth interviews, usually at their workplaces. We began with general questions about the individual's own career development and proceeded with questions about the specific mentoring relationships, their nature, duration, and outcomes. These interviews and field notes, along with any documents gathered, were analyzed for emerging themes and contrasted with reports in the literature concerning educational leadership, administration, and mentorship, especially feminist leadership (Capper, 1993; Donmoyer, Imber & Scheurich, 1995; Marshall, 1994; Montenegro, 1993; Ortiz, 1982; Shakeshaft, 1989).

QUALITY MENTORING

Definitions of the term "mentoring" can be derived from literature in adult and higher education, business administration, and psychology (Jacobi, 1991; Johnsrud, 1991; Merriam, 1983; Pence, 1995; Stalker, 1994). Com-

monly cited among the metaphors are mentor as teacher, coach, advisor, and sponsor, with numerous variations in how mentoring occurs. Our findings define quality mentoring as an active, engaged and intentional relationship between two individuals (mentor and protégé) based upon mutual understanding and serving primarily the professional needs of the protégé. Typical of the comments made by our interviewees related to this definition was,

> [Mentoring is] actively helping that person and training and advising, and talking with them and picking them up when they're low, and laughing with them when they have gotten success. (Pam Egan, mentor)

Structurally, the mentoring relationship was most often that of a boss to a subordinate, which represents a hierarchical dyad. The most frequently cited relationship in this form was that of a school principal mentoring an assistant principal. In other boss-subordinate dyads, a mentor might select a specific individual who demonstrated talents or skills to be their assistant. For example, superintendent Glenda Alcott selected protégé Cassie McHenry as her administrative assistant. While there was no direct career line in this relationship, the opportunity enabled Cassie to learn new skills and gain a better understanding of the school system as a whole. Benefits accrued to both sides. The mentor was able to have an assistant whom she trusted implicitly, for example serving as her "eyes and ears" during meetings. The protégé learned a great deal from the opportunities given to her and subsequently became a high school principal in a magnet school.

There were also informal relationships where an assistant superintendent mentored an assistant principal, giving the protégé access to avenues beyond the school. For example, assistant principal Susan Rembert commented about the connection that she had with her mentor, saying "I have access to a person that nobody seems to have access to, not even the principal." Similarly assistant principal Lauren Kente spoke of her involvement in various district-wide committees, such as BEST, a beginning teachers support group, organized by her mentor Clara Barnes. Both mentor and protégé benefitted from the arrangement, where mentor Clara had a willing volunteer and protégé, Lauren gained both opportunity and exposure within the school district.

Clearly there are advantages to the traditional boss-subordinate relationship in promoting active mentoring. First, both individuals are frequently in contact, often working closely together and sharing daily problems. In one case, mentor Barbara Hansen shared the particulars of her job as Director of Special Programs with her protégé throughout the entire year that they worked together as boss and subordinate. Likewise, mentor George Street trained protégé Janet Cochran in every facet of budget and finance during his tenure as Assistant Superintendent for Finance.

In addition to detailing the nature of administrative work, mentors were able to debrief their protégés, explaining the reasons for their actions and soliciting feedback. According to mentor Joyce Stearns, a protégé can avoid making similar mistakes:

> You're guiding [the protégé] through the experience. They're getting the advantage of the wisdom that you had, having to learn trial by fire, and you're able to pass some of these things along, like, 'Hey don't go there; that's gonna blow up in your face.' And they can really learn a lot and not have to make the same mistakes . . . I try to feed her information that she wouldn't normally get, so that she has information with which to build (Joyce Stearns, mentor).

As supervisor in a boss-subordinate relationship, a mentor can open doors and create leadership opportunities. Among these opportunities for learning are: having different experiences to broaden one's capabilities, demonstrating what one can do, participating in state and national conferences for professional development, and learning more about the profession through advanced graduate work in a university program. One interviewee, Dr. Barnes, described how a mentor, who was also her boss, gave her numerous opportunities and more responsibilities. In some cases, being given more work to do and more opportunity is simply a burden. In this example, however, the protégé was relieved of her other duties to take on this work. Thus, the mentor actually demonstrated support for her professional growth. Other protégés spoke of how mentors gradually increased their expectations and the responsibilities assumed by their protégés to move them beyond their comfort zones. According to protégé Diane Lynch, her mentor was "always expecting more from me than I thought I had to give."

Leadership opportunities may be provided by mentors other than bosses. For example, one superintendent described being gently pushed toward more experiences, responsibility, and education by a university faculty mentor while she was still a shy young student teacher, new to education. Protégé Marion Bateson told of how her mentor, the assistant superintendent, initially blocked Marion's desire to take another position, thus keeping the protégé in administration. She credits her success as a principal to this mentor.

For women in particular, access to the mentors' networks and connections is important. Ramona Gonzales, a Hispanic Director of Special Programs, was given access to key people in the Hispanic community through her male Hispanic mentor for a special event that she was organizing:

> It's really helped. Certainly the meeting just went wonderfully because all these people were there who wouldn't have been there if I'd called them on my own. So the networking piece has helped (Ramona Gonzales, protégé).

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Such mentors create avenues for moving women into leadership positions, recognizing that proactive steps are needed to ensure that equality of opportunity is available for all. One Caucasian female mentor was described by her protégé as passionately believing in increasing the representation of women, particularly those of color, in educational leadership positions. This mentor's agenda became well known throughout her school district and her positive stance inspired confidence among women considering administrative positions.

MENTORING FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Interviewees spoke directly about the opportunities necessary to cultivate school leadership beyond specific skill development and management training in operational areas such as finance, personnel, legal, and student related issues. They commented that good mentoring provided for leadership development in aspects of instruction, participatory decision-making, and caregiving. In this section, these three kinds of leadership are described in terms of how good mentoring practices promoted each of them.

Instructional Leadership

For educators, it is important to be a leader who can bring people together to work on improving teaching and learning. Thus, the mentor must provide a protégé with more than "busy work," such as putting together manuals, filing paperwork, or assigning student lockers. The mentor must structure opportunities for protégés to be involved in instructional activities tied to curriculum and staff development, because part of the work of leading is teaching.

> I make sure [my protégés are] involved in staff training so that they are seen in a role where they can teach other people things. I personally think that a principal needs to be a teacher and able to teach teachers (Marcia Francis, mentor).

Several individuals related leadership to having a commitment specifically to education and to students. That commitment was reiterated by a principal who declared that "Teaching is not just a job" (Elaine Bennett, protégé). Another principal spoke about her work as a calling:

> My job has always felt very much like a calling. It's not . . . the nine to four, you come to work, you do your job, you go home . . . we're here for a purpose. It's not just that somebody has to be the principal of the school and

> make sure that it all runs smoothly but that children learn. And I think the bottom line is the children's learning (Winoa Chambers, mentor).

Participatory Leadership

Learning to be collaborative and engage in participatory leadership can be achieved through chairing different committees at the school, district, or state levels. The experience fosters learning to work with those who might have different interests and perspectives, as for example those serving on a site-based management team with representation from all sectors of the school organization. In this kind of leadership, learning how to work with people is crucial and a mentor can be an asset in directing the protégé toward this interactive engagement. According to this protégé:

> So much of administration, 90 percent, is how you interact with other people, and graduate work doesn't prepare [you] for that. It prepares you academically but it never prepares you for that personal interaction with other people, and trying to please everyone or trying to make sure that we're following through on everything we're saying and we're doing. That's where I have found the mentorship role very valuable in helping me interact with other people more than how I deal with this situation that may be procedural or academic or administration wise. It's more the personal interactions that I need help with (Ramona Gonzales, protégé).

A mentor can also provide instruction in how to manage difficult situations and can serve as a role model for protégés to observe. One mentor spoke of teaching her protégé negotiating skills. Initially this was very difficult for the protégé but, in time, she was able to take over more responsibilities and gain greater self-confidence. Another individual suggested that coaching a protégé through difficult situations such as working with parents and hostile communities was essential:

> Giving [the protégé] experiences in a variety of student, community, and staff areas, so that they can build their repertoire. The more experience you have gives you a better, firm foundation, so that decisions come easier and they're more reliable. They're more predictable and consistent (Marcia Francis, mentor).

Caregiving Leadership

As with participatory leadership, good mentors demonstrate caregiving leadership to their protégés by modeling caregiving in their mentoring

practices. Caregiving seemed to characterize the nature of mentoring relationships according to many respondents. In speaking about mentoring generally and relating to her mentor more specifically, protégé Brenda Monroe commented that her mentor was someone who cared for her well-being and ultimate success:

> The relationship evolved into a mentorship. Pam [mentor] became more than just boss, supervisor, evaluator . . . I certainly experienced a real caring, you know, this is someone who really wanted me to succeed and I certainly wanted to, too (Brenda Monroe, protégé).

Caregiving can also mean that the mentor is a cheerleader, providing constant encouragement and support. Notably, protégés spoke of their mentors giving them encouragement in person and in writing, listening to their difficulties, and making time to meet with them, in spite of their busy schedules. One protégé recounted:

> I was having some difficulties with some personnel in the building and I called my [mentor] and she said, 'Well, let's have dinner.' So we met at a local restaurant and had dinner and talked over the issues . . . I welcome her guidance. (Elaine Bennett, protégé)

But a caring approach does not mean that the protégé is coddled. Protégé Brenda Monroe recalled an incident where she was encouraged to take on something that she did not initially want to do. Her mentor was straightforward and direct in approach.

> [Pam] made me get in the county vehicle and drive out there to this principal's school and confront him. I said, 'You have got to be kidding!' But she wasn't. She didn't do it in a mean way or anything. She said, 'You need to do this, you will appreciate it later. You will grow from this.' . . . I still haven't to this day told [Pam] I appreciate it but I do. And she knows that I do (Brenda Monroe, protégé).

Thus, the caregiving mentor is a model for the protégé, demonstrating concern for the individual's well-being while providing encouragement and support through the many successes and challenges of the profession.

MENTORING FOR TRANSFORMATION

Despite the many caring ways in which women are being mentored, we need to be aware that the practice of mentoring is steeped in a masculine tradition that reinforces the traditional educational administration discourse. "The existing mentoring process is designed to perpetuate the status quo" (Cline & Necochea, 1997, p. 142). Simply having more women engaged in mentoring other women does not in itself necessarily trans-

form mentoring or leadership practice. In this section, the failings of traditional mentoring are outlined as we consider how mentoring might be viewed as a transforming activity rather than one that fosters the status quo.

Mentoring as a Power Relationship

As an activity, mentoring typically privileges a few individuals while excluding many others. Not all white men who wish to reach the upper levels of administration in K-12 settings have been mentored. Even fewer women and minorities have been mentored in principalships or superintendencies. How individuals are picked to be mentored is often associated with power, privilege, and social stratification.

Those seeking entry into administration, especially women and marginalized others, are caught in a dilemma. Traditional mentoring may be their only means to enter administrative ranks, but once they are within the network, they need to consider how to keep themselves from succumbing to the same attitudes and beliefs that discriminate against so many others like them. Moreover, if they build alternative networks of people just like themselves, they must question whether they are constructing a similar privileging by race, class, ethnicity, or sexual preference. The exclusivity of such association is equally insidious. For women being mentored by men, the possibility of sexual exploitation is also inherent, for relations between genders have historically been premised on sex and power.

Although we did not uncover much of this in our interviews, in supervisory relationships, there is the potential for the mentor to abuse the power that comes with mentoring. Protégés may be exploited by overwork or by having unreasonable demands placed upon them. While there were relatively few instances where the women in this study felt truly exploited, some protégés spoke of being "worn out" or "driven too hard." In these cases, too many opportunities were provided. It was felt that mentors relied too much on their protégés while other persons might have been equally capable and qualified. A protégé's gender and race can exacerbate the situation, since historically women and people of color have served as subordinates to white men. Under the supervising mentor, the protégé risks exclusion and punishment if she rejects the patronage of someone who has influence in the system.

Particularly for a novice, being mentored adds another dimension to a hierarchical relationship that is already one of power. In addition, favoritism or privileging can be problematic in mentor relationships because mentors can be crucial in providing opportunities for personal growth and career enhancement. A protégé who is mentored by a powerful person in the organization risks the appearance or accusation of favoritism by her or

his peers. In some cases the protégé may avoid, downplay, or disguise the mentor relationship in order to avoid the perception of unearned privileges. Likewise, if the mentor loses favor within the organization, the mentee can be perceived negatively as well.

Protégés are also vulnerable in situations where their mentors are not their immediate supervisors. There were several cases where the mentor held a prominent position in the district and did not directly supervise the protégé. Examples include an assistant superintendent mentoring an assistant principal and a superintendent mentoring a teacher. Protégés in this situation spoke of the ambiguity to the power and authority surrounding such a relationship. One protégé expressed the conundrum of reporting to a director of secondary schools, who in turn reported to her mentor, the associate superintendent. Thus, when disagreeing with her immediate supervisor, she had to deal with whether she should she approach her mentor directly since supervisors do not like their subordinates to go over their heads. This made the protégé feel that, in this situation, she was at risk.

The traditional model of mentoring tends to perpetuate existing power structures, privileging those few individuals willing to conform to the standards and morés of the dominant white male leadership. Because a mentor and protégé tend to relate as superior and subordinate, there are power differentials that may cause confusion, ambiguity, and even abuse of protégés who are vulnerable.

POSSIBILITIES FOR TRANSFORMATION

To construct mentoring as an activity with the capacity to transform rather than one that perpetuates the status quo, we propose four possible mentoring approaches. First, rather than mentoring only like-minded individuals, we suggest considering grooming leadership from all sectors. In a departure from the normal procedure, in which individual teachers are selected to become administrators in a school building, we advocate considering drawing potential leaders from various ranks, not only teachers but also from staff, parents, and community members. Protégé Angela Patterson spoke of how her mentor cultivated school leadership by encouraging many individuals to assume leadership tasks:

> [My mentor is] very focused on students. She's a very strong person and has a lot of good skills in recognizing talent in different people and encouraging them to develop their own professional development. You know she's constantly encouraging [them] to attend workshops and copying articles for people. She has a really great knack of making people feel very important, encouraging people to take on leadership roles (Angela Patterson, protégé).

This protégé noted the importance of recognizing potential leaders, nurturing their talents in a variety of ways, delegating and sharing responsibilities, and acknowledging good performance, as was demonstrated by her mentor.

A second element in developing mentoring relationships for transformation requires moving beyond racial and gender stereotypes. Feminist poststructural theorists (Capper, 1993; Davies, 1994; Weedon, 1997) criticize the stereotyping that restricts an individual's career possibilities. Frequently, women and persons of color are encouraged to consider support positions such as that of assistant principal, rather than principal, or coordinator of bilingual education, rather than head of curriculum and instruction. The administrative ranks for women and minorities are often lower and the range of leadership styles is curtailed by expectations influenced by gender and race.

Women administrators who are mentoring and providing access to others serve as role models and examples of what is possible for them. More importantly, women's entry into and continuing presence in administration offer possibilities to renegotiate the terms under which women are subjectified as administrators and can help break down barriers to their advancement. Mentoring can achieve the transformation of leadership

> ...in destroying the sexual stereotypes and myths in helping women to become more independent, self-determining people, in offering an alternative view of an intellectual discipline, and/or in conveying a more radical view of the society and the potential of feminist action to change its underlying structure (Fisher, 1982, p. 57).

A third possibility for constructing mentoring that is transformative is by reinforcing participatory and caregiving leadership values into the process. In observing and interacting with their mentors or protégés, many women identified leadership priorities that they, too, embraced:

> [Marsha] was very much a hands-on principal, very much a teacher first, and you know, that's what I believe in. Her way of solving problems was to get people together, and have them talk about what happened (Sara Murphy, protégé).

> [I learned] Joan's way of running a meeting, being sure that people left feeling that they had gotten something done there, but yet giving people enough freedom so they felt like they could breathe (Dorothy Hunnicutt, protégé).

The new discourse of leadership is associated firmly with relationship building. Contrary to the beliefs found in earlier studies, respondents in this study were capable of promoting women and minorities in a nurturing, non-competitive environment. Although mentors had various motives for choosing protégés, all were primarily focused on what was good for the

protégé. Evidence of unselfish caring surfaced in many relationships. Mentors cared that their protégés were successful personally as well as professionally. In response, protégés cared deeply about their mentors, sustaining relationships with their mentors that were mutual, reciprocal, and long-term. When translated into leadership practices, these attitudes and beliefs can reshape the discourse of educational administration. Past administrative success was often associated with exclusivity and privilege. By contrast, these new practices offer the potential for cultivating and sustaining relationships built upon collaboration and sharing.

A fourth possibility in creating transformative mentoring is to foster relationships that value interdependence. Traditional mentoring promotes a male model of maturity that values autonomy and independence. Johnsrud (1991) argues that "mentoring needs to be explored within a conceptual framework that moves beyond male-oriented models of adult development and encompasses values of affiliation, caring, and interdependence" (p. 9).

Beyond individualized leadership, there is the possibility of interdependence. Evolving from the mutual and reciprocal relationships reported by interviewees, interdependence validates the merit of being in relationships with others. It is to appreciate the synergy that flows from connecting with others. It allows individuals to move freely between mentor and protégé positions and ultimately to support each other as colleagues. This is the real promise of mentoring women and minorities into educational administration. If it is undertaken, it can shape the kind of leader a protégé will become. Our study reveals that the kind of person who voluntary mentors women and minorities already values collegiality and connectedness. Giving back to the profession was mentioned by numerous interviewees and suggests the weaving of relationships across genders, ethnicity, occupations, and school districts. This suggests that administrators who emerge from the process will have a personal stake in relationship building, not only with those who initiated the mentoring, but also with others who might benefit.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

For those of us involved in administration programs across the country, this study suggests that we must explicitly include the mentoring of women and minorities in our classes. The nature of mentoring, its power and privilege needs to be made clear. Administrative aspirants, men and women alike, need to know how mentoring is currently conducted, for what purposes it is fostered, and what particular circumstances shape the experiences of women and persons of color. Moreover, women and minorities

need to be able to discuss different gender and racial stereotypes perpetuating subjectified positions.

Next, we need to explore new ways of mentoring. Beyond formal internships and traditional dyadic relationships, students in administrative preparation programs should be encouraged to consider general mentoring, peer relationships, and cohort support systems as ways to build their own connections and gain professional opportunities.

While mentoring is related to leadership, quality mentorship is based upon valuing relationships and focusing on the needs of others. Our study suggests that mentoring, stripped of its exclusivity and privileging, can foster instructional, participatory, and caregiving leadership that can help open up leadership opportunities to more diverse populations and help transform leadership to a more collaborative model. We believe doing so has the potential for making schools better for educational professionals and for the children they serve. The task for those who create and implement leadership preparation programs is to foster mentoring practices that promote such leadership approaches.

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CHAPTER 15

USING MENTORING TO ADVANCE FEMALES AND MINORITIES IN A CORPORATE ENVIRONMENT

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Mentoring, the process whereby persons with "savvy" and influence in the organization teach junior persons " the rules of the game," help them gain the experience and exposure needed to be successful in the organization, challenge them to higher levels of achievement, give them critical feedback about their performance and, if found worthy, sponsor them for advancement (Mertz, Welch & Henderson, 1988a), has long been touted as important, if not critical, to upward mobility in organizations, particularly to the executive ranks (cf: Adam, 1986; Clutterbuck & Megginson, 1999; Collins, 1983; Collins & Scott, 1978; Crow & Matthews, 1998; Haney, 1997; Kanter, 1977; Levinson, et al., 1978; Speizer, 1981; Scandura, 1992). It is as true today as it was 30 years ago that "at the higher levels of organizations there are few, if any, objective tests of competence. At those levels status judges in the profession determine who is and who is not competent" (Epstein, 1970). Mentoring provides a way for status judges to assess and nurture talented juniors. Beyond the individual dimension, mentoring has come to be seen by organizations as a strategy for human resource development—a way to recognize and develop personnel, groom talented young managers, enhance recruitment and retention, and increase job satisfaction (Douglas,1997; Hegstad, 1999; Jossi, 1997). It is also one of the best means of achieving diversity in organizations (Battin, 1997; Kerka, 1998; Matczynski & Comer, 1991; Steele, 1991).

Females, Minorities and the Computer Science Field

If mentoring is important for organizational advancement, it is critical for the advancement of members of groups that are underrepresented at the executive levels and even in a profession as a whole (Bierma, 1996; Collins, 1983; Grant & Ward, 1992, Gunn, 1995; NSF, 2000; Kanter, 1977). The underrepresentation of women and minorities in computer science is well-documented. Despite being a relatively new field, which only came to full flower in the post-civil rights era, comparatively few women and minorities enter and persist in computer science, and those who do often find themselves stuck at lower levels of the organization (Gries & Marsh, 1992). Part of the problem is that there is a lack of women and minorities in the pipeline. A decade ago, only 10 percent to 14 percent of those who graduated from computer science doctoral programs were women and minorities (Gries & Marsh, 1992) and there is a growing concern that the situation is worsening (NPR, 2000). For example, the National Science Foundation (2000) reported that the numbers and percentages of bachelor's degrees awarded to females had declined from 37 percent in 1982 to 28 percent in 1996, and masters degrees declined from 29 percent (1982) to 27 percent (1996).

Moreover, women were less likely than men to choose science and engineering fields, more likely to be unemployed, less likely to be tenured or to hold the rank of full professor in academic institutions, even adjusting for age or years since receiving their doctorate, and much more likely to receive lower salaries. Indeed, women scientists and engineers earn 25 percent–35 percent less than their male colleagues after 10 years, and their earnings peak at age 50 while men's continue to rise until they retire (Angier, 1991). While precise, comparable data about minorities is not as clearly accessible, the numbers and percentages of minorities studying engineering, particularly African-American students, declined 5 percent from 1992 to 1996, and Black undergraduate enrollment dropped 16 percent during that same time period (NSF, 2000).

The Commission on the Advancement of Women and Minorities in Science, Engineering and Technology Development was established by Congress in 1998. It was charged with making recommendations for "building a domestic work force capable of meeting our nation's strategic SET (science, engineering, technology) needs. In the summary of its report, *Land of Plenty: Diversity as America's Competitive Edge in Science, Engineering and Technology* (July, 2000), it concluded:

> An increasingly large share of the work force consists of women, under-represented minorities, and persons with disabilities—groups persistently underrepresented in SET careers. This significant shift in U.S. work force demographics is occurring even as the number of SET jobs skyrocket. (p. 1)

Women and minorities in computer science see few role models, either in academe or corporate America, and find themselves limited in their ability to move into and up in the executive ranks by the sometimes subtle, sometimes not so subtle, use of informal selection criteria applied to individuals "different from" those who control entry into the upper levels of organizations (Mertz, Welch & Henderson, 1988b). Mentoring is perceived to be a way for women and minorities in computer science to transcend these barriers to upward mobility, and a growing number of mentoring programs have been instituted. The programs take a variety of forms from the traditional one-on-one personal mentoring of the AWIS Mentoring Project, which seeks to increase the number of women who attain bachelor's and advanced degrees in science and engineering, to the e-mail based mentoring of students by industry mentors in the National Electronic Industrial Mentoring Network for Women in Engineering and Science (MentorNet).

Formal mentoring programs in corporations have grown in the last ten years (Douglas, 1997; The Mentoring Institute, 1998; Jossi, 1997). A 1996 survey by the magazine *Human Resources Executive Review* reported that between 1995 and 1996, the percentage of businesses planning mentoring programs doubled from 17 percent to 36 percent. Formal mentoring programs stand in marked contrast to the traditional, so-called "naturally-occurring" mentoring relationships that have long characterized career advancement. Naturally-occurring mentoring relationships are perceived to develop informally, spontaneously, to be strictly voluntary, and to result largely from mutual attraction. Formal mentoring programs, on the other hand, are arranged, involve a purposeful pairing of mentors and protégés, identify (and sometimes coerce) those who will participate, both as mentors and protégés, and target a group or groups to receive the mentoring, most often women and minorities.

THE PROJECT

Mentoring Women and Minorities in Computer Science, a project initiated by the Association for Computing Machinery and funded by the National Science Foundation and others, grew out of concerns about the persistent under-representation of women and minorities in the computer science disciplines, particularly at senior corporate levels (Pleeger & Mertz, 1995.) Promising junior computer scientists were paired with senior computer scientists in three industrial organizations, to identify what would constitute an effective mentoring process and program in that setting. While the project also looked at mentoring in computer science in academe, it is the corporate experience that we have chosen to address in this chapter. Since valuable lessons were learned from the procedural aspects of the project,

as well as from the mentoring relationships studied, both are reviewed before moving on to examine the lessons learned from the project.

Site and Participants

The principal investigator, one of the co-authors of this chapter, is a computer scientist, and was, at the time the project was initiated, a principal scientist (not a division head) in a major computer corporation. She recruited the corporation for which she worked and sought participation from other companies with which she was familiar and in which she had contacts. Participation was conditional upon agreement to abide by certain requirements that were drawn from lessons learned from a prior mentoring project (Mertz, Welch & Henderson, 1998 b).

Organizational participation had to be approved by a top administrator in the corporation. This was deemed essential to ensure some measure of commitment by the organization, to give visibility to the process, and to attempt to forestall potential initial resistance to the very existence of a formal mentoring program that would include some and exclude others. The organization had to agree to sponsor at least two pairs of mentors and protégés. This was to ensure that each pair would have another pair with whom to share the experience and work through any problems.

The protégés had to be members of underrepresented groups in computer science: women and minorities. The project was directed at enhancing the opportunities for women and minorities to obtain and benefit from mentoring. Targeting the groups from which protégés might be drawn was essential to ensure that intent. The protégés had to be individuals perceived as having promise for upward mobility in the organization. This condition was designed to provide some sense of legitimacy to the protégés and to forestall criticism about their ability.

The mentors chosen had to be high enough up in the administrative structure of the organization to be able to influence the promotion of the protégés. Without such a condition, while a protégé might learn much from the mentor, the potential for upward mobility would not be directly enhanced.

Three computer corporations agreed to participate in the project and accepted the criteria, and conditions established for participation. Corporation A sponsored three mentor-protégé pairs; Corporation B, sponsored two pairs; and Corporation C, selected seven pairs resulting in a total of a dozen pairs in all. The mentors ranged from group leaders and lead scientists to department heads and corporate vice-presidents. The selection of mentors and protégés and their pairing with mentors were accomplished differently at each site. At Corporation A, selection and pairing were done by a corporate vice-president who was interested in the goals of the project,

but did not participate as a mentor. The mentors were white males (2 chief scientists; 1 department head) and the protégés included two Caucasian females and one African-American male. In Corporation B, pairs were selected by a department head who participated as one of the mentors and recruited another person in his division, a senior scientist, to participate. Both were Caucasian. The protégés were both African-American, one female and one male. Corporation C used a more systematic process to select and pair the participants. The protégés were identified through a combination of solicitation and suggestions from the vice-president and the head of human resources, who also suggested mentors. Both mentors and protégés were asked to identify up to three possible partners from a list of those willing to participate. Then each participant was granted one of the choices. The mentors represented the full range of positions and included two African-Americans and five Caucasians; four females and three males. The protégés included four African-Americans and three Caucasians; three males and four females. Early in the project two protégés, a Caucasian male and an African-American female, left this corporation, one to return to school for an advanced degree, and the other to join the federal government. Thus, the corporate project began with ten pairs of mentors and protégés in three corporations.

PROJECT ACTIVITIES

Recognizing that it would be inappropriate to assume that the participants had a clear understanding of mentoring or what would be required of them in the process, the project began with a workshop where mentor-protégé pairs were brought together to learn about mentoring—purposes, roles, expectations, outcomes, and potential problems. The workshop was designed to allow each pair to develop a plan for the 18 month experience that would best fit their particular context and needs. The workshop was also used as an opportunity to nurture enthusiasm, address fears, clear up misconceptions, and foster commitments to the project among mentors and mentees.

The workshop involved a lively mix of presentations, discussions, group sessions (mixed mentor-protégé; separate mentor and protégé), pair and context work sessions, data collection, social activities to build a sense of community and facilitate the interaction between mentor-protégé pairs, and inspirational talks, all focused on mentoring, rather than on computer science. The development of the plan of action by each pair for the mentoring experience, complete with goals, timelines, and intermediate evaluative points, was probably the most critical activity that took place.

The workshop generated a good deal of enthusiasm for and commitment to the process, as expressed in the workshop evaluation forms and

referred to subsequently in one-on-one interviews. The enthusiasm and commitment tended to dissipate, however, as pairs returned to the demands of their daily activities. For a variety of reasons, including cost, the pairs were not brought together again during the project duration. Were we to run such a project again, we would make sure to do this, even if they could not all be brought back together in one place. A lesson we learned is the need for the pairs to come together to check and adjust their plans of action, to express and resolve problems that might have arisen, to clear the air about differences in perceptions about what was happening, and to get an outside view of how well they were doing.

During the 18 months of the project, while occasional contacts were made with the pairs, there was no systematic interaction with or supervision of the pairs, and that allowed problems to go unresolved. In retrospect, it was shortsighted not to have made such assistance a part of the project. Assistance, from within or without, unobtrusive, but available and facilitated by regular inquiries would have unquestionably increased the number of positive, productive relationships and redirected pairs that got off-course.

Intensive, one-on-one interviews with each mentor and protégé were conducted near the end of the project. They yielded extremely rich data about the mentoring experience, what worked and what didn't, and what would have made it more successful. Additional sources of data included an attitudinal survey about mentoring administered pre and post, as well as administration of the Meyers-Briggs Type Indicator. Further, the pre and post status and position of each protégé were assessed.

MEASURING SUCCESS

Data for determining the success of the mentoring experiences were drawn from the intensive interviews with protégés and mentors. Three criteria were used to assess the success of each of the mentoring relationships.

1. Both the mentor and the protégé had to perceive the experience as successful or in some way positive
2. The experience involved activities and content designed to help the protégé advance in the organization, and
3. The professional relationship that existed went beyond simply advising or supervising, transcending the boundaries of the project, and would continue after its conclusion.

By that measure, only three of the ten pairs could be deemed successful. They met all three criteria. An additional pair met the first two criteria, but it was not clear that they met the third one. Two pairs were decidedly

unsuccessful. They met none of the criteria and saw the experience as decidedly unsatisfactory and disappointing. Four pairs seemed to fall into a "between the cracks" state, neither successful nor unsuccessful. They all failed to meet at least two of the three criteria, sometimes all three, and saw the experience as inconsequential or irrelevant.

For those pairs that were successful, the experience was affirming and energizing. For those that were unsuccessful, the experience was somewhat embittering. Protégés in unsuccessful experiences saw it as confirming their marginal status in the organization. To them, their mentors represented the organization; they could help or hinder. They were seen as hindering, either because of who they were or what they did or did not do. Conversely, the mentors saw these protégés as ungrateful, unworthy of their efforts, and calling into question the need or value of mentoring. For the pairs for whom the experience turned out to be inconsequential or irrelevant, there was confusion about what was required of each of them and uncertainty about whether mentoring was a good thing. Both pairs gave the relentless press of day-to-day work commitments as the primary reason for the lack of consequence in the experience. As one protégé mused, "I'm sorry I didn't get more out of it, but then, I don't know what I expected to get out of it." For the mentors in this group, there was particular concern that mentoring activities were not recognized as legitimate and important work by the company since there was no project code to record the time spent in mentoring. In their minds, this reflected the low status the company accorded to the activity.

While it is not possible to disaggregate the attitudinal data by mentoring pairs to see if attitudinal shifts might be associated with levels of success, the aggregated data raise some interesting concerns. Mentor-protégé responses were quite similar before and after the project with respect to the importance of the project, the importance of mentoring for advancement in the field, the importance of special efforts to recruit women and minorities into computer science, and the protégé having what it took to succeed. However, in the post-test, while mentors still agreed that it was harder for women and minorities to advance in organizations, they were less convinced that this was so. In contrast, protégés were considerably more convinced of this difficulty and became much stronger in their belief in the necessity of mentoring for advancement. The findings are perplexing and worrisome. One must wonder to what extent mentoring experiences lead mentors and protégés to this shift in their views. Likewise, the results raise concerns about the extent to which mentoring experiences lead mentors in some relationships to become less confident in the necessity and efficacy of mentoring for women and minorities. These issues bear further investigation. While the numbers are too small and the change too modest to draw reasoned conclusions, it would be tragic if the very remedy for which such projects are undertaken lead to less support for women and minorities. It makes it all the more imperative to increase the likelihood of

success of arranged mentoring experiences to achieve the larger goal of increasing diversity.

LESSONS LEARNED

While relatively small in scale, this project yielded powerful lessons about mentoring, about mentoring in corporate settings, and about mentoring women and minorities in computer science. The protégés, in particular, were extremely candid about their experiences: what did and did not happen, what worked and what did not work, what they felt comfortable with and what was problematic, who was mentoring and who was merely going through the motions, if that. This is not to suggest that mentors were not forthcoming, even equally candid, but this was not uniformly so. This, in itself, is a valuable finding. On the face of it, protégés had more to lose—and to win—in the experience. However, mentors projected a vulnerability that was not anticipated. It is difficult to assess the extent to which this was true. We had clear indications that a number of them felt constrained by the espoused commitment of the organization to the project and by having consented to participate in it without having sufficiently considered what would be required of them. Once involved, they were hard-pressed to back out without "looking bad." Instead of asking for assistance or making assertive efforts to reach out to their protégés, they tended to withdraw, to allow interactions to peter out, and, as often as not, to perceive that any failure was attributable to the protégé.

The lessons learned transcend the particulars of race, gender and the discipline of computer science. The project involved a variety of pairings: same gender, different gender; same race, cross-race; similar dispositions, opposing dispositions. While concerns were raised by a few mentors in cross-gender pairs before beginning the project, gender-related problems did not emerge during the project, as least as far as we could determine. This is not to say they could not have or that it might not be worthwhile to anticipate this possibility when making pairings and preparing pairs for the experience. Rather, it is not possible to draw a lesson from something that did not happen in this project. Although the project involved computer science organizations, our observations seem to apply to the practices of large organizations, whatever their focus. One aspect of the corporations studied is worthy of particular note. Not unlike many large established corporations, the executive ranks of the corporations studied were overwhelmingly populated with white males. White females and males and females of color were sprinkled modestly in the executive ranks.

We have identified 7 lessons that we learned from the project. They are listed as a group followed by a discussion of each of them. The lessons learned were:

Lesson 1: The organization must make a demonstrable commitment to the mentoring program in general and to the mentoring of women and minorities in particular.

Lesson 2: Mentors must make an informed, voluntary decision to become mentors and commit to the process.

Lesson 3: Protégés should be chosen first for their promise and potential, then for their race and gender.

Lesson 4: Mentors and protégés should be paired purposefully.

Lesson 5: Mentor/protégé pairs need preparation for and supervision during the experience.

Lesson 6: A well thought through, frequently revisited, revised plan of action should guide the experience.

Lesson 7: Actions must be taken to maximize the success of the mentoring experience.

Organizational Commitment

While organizational commitment might seem to be self-evident and/or a concomitant to agreement to participate in a mentoring program, it is naive to think that there is a clear and necessary relationship between agreement to participate and even espoused commitments to diversity and the advancement of women and minorities within an organization, and what is necessary for the program to be effective. At a time when government encourages, and in some cases requires, a commitment to diversity, it is not unexpected that corporations would be willing, if not eager, to participate in such programs. Mentoring can appear to be an easy, relatively risk-free way to show commitment to enhancing diversity. One would not want to take anything away from the participating organizations or to be cynical about their participation, for we found executives in each of the organizations that were honestly committed to the goals. However, it is not enough for a lone executive or two to be supportive. Our findings suggest that in order for organizational mentoring to succeed, *the organization must make a demonstrable, visible commitment to the mentoring program and to the mentoring of women and minorities, if they want such programs to succeed.*

Individuals in the organization, at its highest level, must make their mentoring programs central to the work of the organization rather than peripheral, and consistently proclaim their commitment to these programs and their goals. The organization must accord such efforts both visibility and legitimacy, identifying them as something important to the organization and its executives. Top executives must participate, when appropriate, and take an interest in these programs when they are not participating directly. The overriding message must be that success in achieving the goals of the program is encouraged, expected, and honored.

An integral part of this commitment involves the way in which the company structures the mentor/protégés relationships. A systematic process for choosing mentors and protégés needs to be established, one that ensures both that the chosen protégés are seen as promising and that the mentors have something special to offer. This visible process is especially critical since a program to advance women and minorities often suffers from jealousy, charges of unfairness, and questions about the legitimacy of the participants. Clearly, this program is designed to identify, assess and "fast-track" protégés, if their promise is realized. However, such a program can be problematic when the organization does not announce its commitment to such a course of action. At the highest levels, the organization must lend its "influence" to its mentoring program.

Top-level executives should involve themselves in the project, if not in choosing the protégés, then at least in helping to select and/or anoint the mentors. It should be considered a reward (a sign of recognition of special qualities) to be chosen to be a mentor, and organizational rewards should accrue to those who choose to become mentors. The organization should, at the very least, make mentoring a part of the mentors' performance evaluation, as they would other aspects of work designed to serve the organization. Even if the recognition and reward for the activity are minimal, they signal the organization's commitment. Moreover, the organization should plan and allow for mentors and protégés to take some time from and in the work situation to attend to the mentoring. If this means assigning a code for tracking time spent in the activity, so be it, but mentors should not be expected to donate "out-of-pocket" all of the time that may be required.

While those who participate in mentoring programs should be recognized, supported, and rewarded, there should be no penalty for those who do not participate. It seems apparent that not all individuals have the capacity or desire to serve as an effective mentor. The organization should not coerce people into participating, subtly or otherwise. It must allow for truly voluntary participation and recognize that everyone does not need or benefit from the same things or possess the same qualities. There must be room and comfort for the mentor, in particular, to say no, or not at this time, without suffering for that honesty.

Mentor Commitment

Mentors must understand what is involved in mentoring before agreeing to participate, must be committed to the goals of mentoring, and must give their assent voluntarily. To be a good mentor does not appear to require a particular approach or even personality, but rather a certain commitment, understanding, and willingness to become involved in the process. Not everyone can or should be a mentor, no matter how willing or

good they are at their job. Mentors must understand that such a program is other-directed, focused first and foremost on the protégés' development and enhancement. Although there is an element of selflessness, mentors do gain from the experience. In fact, there are individual rewards for being a mentor, even without formal organizational rewards. As one mentor mused,

> It was something important to do. Any time you can help someone feel better about themselves and their environment, give them an extra push, get answers for him he can't ask, maneuver the rules of the game, and be in his corner, you have to feel good about yourself.

Within this project, one of the mentors was reaping professional benefit from being associated with his protégé. He was being recognized for his ability to spot a "comer," and he was associated with her success. The more he helped her, the greater the attribution of his contribution to her success, despite the fact that he did not necessarily believe he deserved such attribution. It is interesting that in this case, the mentor approached the task a bit warily, but with the sense that the protégé was a person with potential. He saw the project as an opportunity to "try her out," "really push her to see what she had." As he proceeded in the project, and the protégé exceeded his expectations, he increasingly became her cheerleader, giving her more assignments, positioning her to advance, introducing her into his networks and taking her along to the events that would give her visibility in the organization. He was clear that he was benefiting by her performance; that others recognized her abilities and his efforts; that he enjoyed a kind of "halo effect," and that he was being praised for his "smarts" in recognizing and developing talent. In this successful pairing, both saw themselves benefitting. There was a tacit *quid pro quo*, an ideal state of affairs.

Not everyone, however, would see that situation as appropriate or rewarding. Not everyone has the qualities needed to be a mentor, and more pointedly, not everyone believes in mentoring or in mentoring women and minorities. At its best, mentoring requires mentors to devote time, energy, and emotion to a relationship that is focused primarily on someone else. The mentor must take primary responsibility for the relationship, since it is the mentor who has the greater power in the situation. It also requires the mentor to share—information, insights, know-how, tacit understandings, networks, tough feedback, reputation—a most risky proposition. Not everyone can or is willing to do so. As a protégé indicated after citing several examples of opportunities not taken by the mentor, "He has the contacts. He knows key vice-presidents, but he didn't want to share them." Mentors must make their decisions to become mentors in full awareness of what the role requires.

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On reflection, we did not give this aspect of mentoring sufficient thought and attention pre-project. While we prepared to help mentors better understand their role as mentors in the workshop that kicked-off the project, the mentors had already been chosen by the organizations. Thinking about it now, we must have assumed that those who might become mentors would have had at least a basic understanding of what would be required, one rooted in our understanding of the process, and that only those who wanted to participate would have agreed to do so. We learned that this was not necessarily so. Many of the mentors had no clear conception of what a mentor was expected to do before agreeing to participate; few had any clear sense that it would require time and thought on their part to make it work; and some, we inferred later, did not want to participate, but felt that having been asked, they could not refuse. While there is probably a fine line between encouragement and coercion, reluctance and coerced agreement, coerced participation is unlikely to result in a good mentoring relationship.

Further, as with organizations, not every individual is favorably disposed to mentoring or committed to mentoring women and minorities. Despite espoused commitment to the importance of mentoring for career advancement and to the mentoring of women and minorities for advancement, we had occasion to doubt these espousals by a couple of the mentors. Indeed, this lack of enthusiasm may well be the source of changes in mentor attitudes post-project referred to earlier. One mentor even commented aloud that he was not so sure that mentoring was needed by women and minorities to get ahead. Needless to say, there was an eerie relationship between some of those mentors about whom we had doubts, those who may have felt some coercion to participate as mentors, and unsuccessful pairings of mentors with protégés.

In a different vein, not everyone who might agree to be a mentor should become one, especially if the purpose of the mentoring is career advancement, as in this project. Mentoring for career advancement requires mentors who are persons of influence in the organization, able ultimately to influence the advancement of a protégé with great promise. Mentors should be people whose recommendations and assessments gatekeepers trust, people who are asked about the protégé when an opportunity to advance becomes available. Of course, it doesn't hurt if the mentors themselves are the gatekeepers.

Mentors must make an informed, voluntary decision to become mentors. Mentors must know what they are getting into before agreeing to become mentors. They should have time to think about whether they should, can, and want to invest what may be required, and can commit themselves to the goal of advancing women and minorities, and their decision must be voluntary, with no retribution, subtle or otherwise, for saying no. This is not to say that mentors might not develop a commitment in the process of mentoring or find the requirements to be less burdensome in the doing than in

the thinking about. We found that particularly with the latter, successful pairs worked their way to success together, and found the time spent, even though unrecognized by the organization, to be comfortable and anything but onerous. However, in implementing mentoring projects, we should not rely on that happening. We need to do all that is possible to identify mentors who are ready and willing to mentor, understand that it will require something of them, and are committed to the advancement of women and minorities in their organization. It is incumbent on those organizing mentoring programs to help the organization to understand this.

Selecting Promising Protégés

Formal mentoring projects instituted to advance women and minorities suffer from the same myths and misconceptions that surround affirmative action. Mentoring is sometimes seen as imposed on corporations; as something the organization is doing to look good; as advancing people who are less qualified or unable to make it on their own, "the way I did." Such attitudes put such projects in immediate peril. They may engender jealousy and bad feelings amongst those not included but who feel themselves equally qualified for consideration. Such mentoring programs may thus cause tension and a sense of threat to those with whom the identified people will be competing for advancement. Likewise, these programs can engender hostility from those who do not believe that any group needs or should have special opportunities to advance, and might even lead to activities designed to sabotage the success of the project.

There may be no way to totally avoid these negative possibilities, but there are ways to ameliorate their effects. The legitimacy of mentoring is enhanced significantly when the protégés who are chosen are clearly those with talent and promise, even if this is not yet widely recognized. Not every potential protégé (every women or minority) should be invited to become a protégé. While every protégé chosen to participate from the three corporations appeared to be promising, not every mentor thought this was true. More importantly, none of the organizations made it clear that the protégés were chosen on that basis, and that the mentoring program was associated with identifying promising junior people to look at for consideration for fast-tracking, a notion and activity with long, legitimate roots in corporate America. The failure to make this clear made it seem as if protégés were chosen *because* they were women and minorities. While this is not inherently a bad criterion, and indeed, was a criterion, it was not, and we would argue, should not be, the sole criterion. Such projects will be considered legitimate only to the extent that they are perceived as selecting mentors and protégés primarily for their abilities and potential. Thus, it is essential that the organization widely share the criteria for selection

with those in the program and those who are not selected to participate. Likewise, there can be no guarantees that all protégés will turn out to realize their promise.

Purposeful Pairing

Mentoring involves two people in an intense, although not necessarily personal, experience. At the beginning of the project, we wondered whether differences in preference and personality might affect the relationship and we looked carefully, albeit anecdotally, at the many different pairings of personality and perspective represented even in so small-scale a study. We did not find any substantive differences on those bases; however the study did not really allow for any certainty in this. Strikingly, however, all of the participants, both mentors and protégés, spoke of the importance of the pairs being suited to one another, of "wanting to be involved with one another." They spoke of the need "to click," something beyond just liking each other and feeling comfortable with one another, which were themselves identified as essential ingredients for a good relationship. "We clicked and I knew he had my best interests in mind," said one protégé. The participants referred to a need to trust one another so that things could be shared without concern about their going further, so that feedback and advice could be sent and received without destroying the relationship, and so that each could feel comfortable asking the questions they had for each other without hesitation. Clicking also referred to the notion that they "were in it (the experience) together." One protégé, expounding on how well the experience was going, marveled, "He believes in me more than I believe in myself."

One of the things we found is that successful pairs respected one another, and unsuccessful pairs did not, and had not from the beginning. Respect for one another, certainly as professionals and possibly as persons, would seem to be a prerequisite for making a mentoring relationship work. Mentors must respect protégés to find them worthy of receiving opportunities to grow and prove their competence. Protégés must respect mentors to be open to their advice and feedback. Respect and trust go hand-in-hand. As a mentor in a successful pairing related, "Our personalities and approaches to life are so different, but I respect him."

Several protégés and a few mentors spoke of the need to "see things in similar ways," referring to somewhat different things, depending on the speaker. For some it referred to what was expected of mentors and protégés. One mentor vehemently reported that he "expected the protégé to come to [him] with problems or questions." He was incensed that she did not. Interestingly enough, the protégé reported that she did not trust the mentor and "didn't believe you should go to a mentor with problems."

Needless to say, this was one of the unsuccessful pairs. For others, similarity related to career expectations or orientation. A few mentors resented the overt ambitiousness of their protégés—overt in the sense that the protégé spoke about wanting to advance in the organization. This was in marked contrast to one mentor who was delighted that the protégé was "driven." "He's taking every opportunity to ask questions. He's building the sucker (his career) brick by brick. He's taking all the right steps." Still others found that they differed about their views of life and work and what it took to get ahead.

In itself, we did not perceive that seeing things in similar ways constituted a necessary condition for a successful relationship, although it did help. This commonality appeared to matter most for those pairs who were neither successful nor unsuccessful. However, looking at both successful and unsuccessful pairs, we had both compatibility and incompatibility of world and career views.

One aspect of compatibility that was raised related to whether or not the mentor and protégé needed to be engaged in the same kind of work and in the same division or corporate line. We had pairs that were and pairs that were not, and successful and unsuccessful pairs with each alternative. We found that interaction was facilitated if the mentor and protégé did the same kind of work, whether they worked together or not, and that working together provided a basis for meeting regularly, having substantive work-related discussions, and for gaining information for feedback. However, we are hard-pressed to devolve a lesson from this. A pair in the same division but not in the same building had difficulty getting together. They didn't run into one another and weren't working on the same projects. In the end, their experience was neither successful nor unsuccessful. It just died of neglect. Another pair, not in the same division or even line of work, representing different disciplinary interests and separated by many levels of organization, had no common projects and rarely ran into one another, but were one of the most successful mentoring pairs.

What all of this suggests is that careful thought should be given to the pairing of mentors and protégés and time allotted for increasing the likelihood that they will "click." In the project, different approaches were used to accomplish this pairing. For obvious reasons, we did not probe whether or not the possible pairs respected one another, or even knew enough about one another to do so. Indeed, we never suggested that potential mentors and protégés needed to get to know one another before pairings were made. We just didn't think about it. We assumed that they would know one another, and in the one instance where a systematic approach was used to select mentors and protégés, they each had a choice from a list of those who had agreed to participate. That was not enough to ensure that they were making informed choices, choices based on respect and the potential for trust. Although there is no way to guarantee that pairings will work, *mentors and protégés should be paired purposely*, not randomly, to attempt

to maximize the likelihood that they will be comfortable with one another. With hindsight, one thing we recommend is to provide an opportunity for the pairs to get to know one another better before agreeing to participate, and to pair them only if they think they will be comfortable with one another.

Preparation and Supervision

We anticipated the need to address roles and expectations, which we did in the workshop provided for mentors and protégés at the inception of the project. The project was widely praised, especially for attempting to address these roles and expectations. However, we learned that it was not sufficient to ensure that all of the mentors and protégés clearly understood their roles or were in sync with the goals of the project. This insufficiency may have led to misunderstandings between pairs, and appeared to contribute to a lack of success for some pairs. One of the protégés expressed disappointment that his mentor treated him like a child, giving him advice about how to behave in an organization, "fit in," rather than "get ahead," and sharing war stories about his experiences in life. This may have been the mentor's perception of the way to help the protégé, but the protégé neither saw nor experienced it as such. There were also several instances in which mentors demonstrated that they either did not understand or were not committed to fulfilling the mentor role in terms of helping to develop and advance the protégé. More attention to preparing mentors for their roles, and for what was reasonable to expect from the protégé, combined with an arsenal of activities that they might use with their protégés or examples of ways of fulfilling their role might have made more of the experiences successful.

Many of the mentors, and almost all of the protégés, spoke about the need for some kind of supervision throughout the process. They spoke of needing someone who would check with them periodically to see that things were proceeding smoothly. They wanted a person to whom they could turn with questions or problems, and who would intervene if things weren't happening or if a protégé needed to be reassigned. Further, they wanted someone who would be able to call the pairs together periodically, either within an organization or across organizations. Mentors and protégés often referred to the good feeling and communication they had experienced in the workshop and to the value of having the opportunity to deal forthrightly with issues related to mentoring. They spoke wistfully of a desire to have more of those meetings to enable them to recapture such feelings, reestablish communication, and rekindle the enthusiasm with which they started out. At the front end, one of the conditions for participating involved having at least two pairs of mentors and protégés from an

organization. The thinking was that they would have each other to turn to for support and advice in the event of problems. While pairs in one organization met once a month over lunch, it was the only organization in which this occurred. The meetings did not serve the anticipated purpose. The protégés felt these meetings were being used in lieu of more active mentoring activities; involved interesting discussions of the organization and included a very occasional visit by another executive, but they didn't ever discuss problems they were experiencing in their mentoring relationships.

Similarly, mentors and protégés were keenly aware that while they may have begun the experience enthusiastically, under the relentless pressure of work, their enthusiasm waned and it was all too easy to let mentoring-related activities slide. Building in a process that ensured continuing supervision for the pairs, either from within or without, could have forestalled this decline. It would also have allowed us to identify and help mentors or protégés who were unclear about their roles or who were not committed to the goals of career advancement. A clear lesson learned is that *mentors and protégés need preparation for and supervision during the experience.*

Plan of Action

In the initial workshop, pairs of mentors and protégés met to collaboratively develop goals, identify activities aimed at realizing those goals, and set timelines for their achievement. We saw this as a critical step in establishing and focusing the relationship, allowing each pair to begin the process with a plan of action. As a group we reviewed the highlights of two model plans, but we did not require submission of the plans made by each pair, nor did we review each plan in detail. We hoped that pairs would refine the plan when they returned home, and revisit it periodically, thus always having a plan of action. The pairs who were successful had such a plan, and used it to guide their experience. However, not all of the pairs crafted such a comprehensive plan, and often floundered in its absence. Both mentors and protégés saw goal setting as a highly positive activity, but not all of the pairs elaborated a plan to realize those goals. For those who did, there was no one looking over their shoulders to check that the activities specified were likely to achieve the goals. In the end, some pairs did not get beyond "writing out the goals. Basically, that's the only positive thing we did. Putting it down on paper helped me to think about it." Pairs who had a clear plan of action fared much better than those who did not.

In retrospect, we should have met with each pair to ensure that they fully developed their plan of action and helped them craft a plan which was both explicit and useful. Further, we should have required that a copy of the plan be submitted for review, feedback, and possible revision. It is

not enough, however, for these plans to be developed. There must be some mechanism for encouraging the pairs to revisit the plan regularly throughout the process to be sure they are on target, to check to see if the goals and associated activities are still appropriate, and to assure that the timelines being met. This would have provided a basis for discussing the efficacy of the experience and for interposing new ideas and activities within it. To be most successful, *a well thought through, frequently revisited, revised plan of action should guide the mentoring experience.*

Maximize Success

One of the lessons we learned was the importance of doing everything possible to increase the likelihood that the mentoring relationship will be positive and productive for the majority of the participants. This does not mean that every relationship will end with the protégé being promoted, or even found worthy of advancement, or that every relationship can be positive. Rather, it is essential that the experience and relationship are not seen as negative or useless by the participants. There is considerable value to be derived from positive relationships from which the protégé gains developmentally. However, experiences that are negative or perceived to be useless may well have a detrimental effect not only on the participants, but also on their coworkers and on the organization itself.

Mentors and protégés who saw the experience as less than positive tended to become cynical, if not embittered. On the part of mentors, the cynicism related to the value and even need for mentoring of women and minorities. On the part of protégés, it reinforced their belief that mentoring was necessary and vital to their advancement, but led them to express more cynicism about the organization and its commitment to advancing women and minorities, and even more, to their prospects for advancement in the organization. However, these are not the only unfortunate outcomes. Formal mentoring programs, particularly those that are established to benefit particular groups, often undergo intense scrutiny and criticism, as discussed earlier, and are approached with considerable wariness. As a result, a lack of success may have a chilling effect on the willingness of current mentors to work with others, on others in the organization to participate as mentors, and on protégés seeing the experience as legitimate. Therefore, it is essential to *maximize the success of the mentoring relationship.* Successful relationships are the best recruitment tool for subsequent mentors and protégés. They also symbolize the organization's commitment to the advancement of women and minorities in deed, not just in word.

While each successful mentoring experience was unique in some ways, we did garner modest lessons from what successful pairs did that would help other relationships to be more successful, all other things being

equal. Mentors in successful pairs took the initiative in the relationship from the beginning, especially until a clear level of mutual trust, respect, and comfort had been established. Mentors did not wait for the protégé to contact them; they made the first and second and third moves. They called, set up meetings, facilitated opportunities to get to know one another in low-risk settings, and asked protégés about their goals and interests. In every way they could, they made it easy for their protégés to get to know them, and to see the nature and parameters of the possible relationship. This ease of access was important, since in most instances protégés were unsure of what was appropriate or inappropriate, and reluctant to take the initiative. They felt themselves on trial and did not want to do anything to "mess up this chance." Mentors had different personalities and reputations within their companies, and protégés were sometimes paired with mentors who were far above them in the corporate pecking order. It is not surprising that they might have been unsure about what kind of relationship would be possible. Having mentors take the initiative ensured that a relationship had a chance to develop and signaled willingness on their part. Further, it communicated to protégés that their mentors were attending to the mentoring relationship and prepared to do whatever was necessary to make it work. Psychologically, the signals sent by the mentor's activism yielded great benefits. It allowed trust and comfort to develop. Once they began to feel this, protégés felt more comfortable taking the initiative. As they found their overtures accepted by the mentor, protégés felt more at ease, leading to relationships in which each felt comfortable calling the other to arrange a meeting or to probe a concern. Their relationship, while always remaining professional, became increasingly comfortable and they interacted without visible strain. It is not surprising that successful pairs reported that they met regularly, but "without being prompted."

Mentors in successful pairs did something else from the beginning of the relationship: they visibly associated themselves with the program and with the protégé. They spoke about their involvement in the program, mentioned their protégé and projected an enthusiasm about participating and the protégé. It may well be that they were already convinced of the potential of the protégé, another strong argument for picking protégés carefully. However, mentors also demonstrated a willingness to risk their reputation by associating themselves with their protégés.

The mentoring experience, for successful pairs, focused on the protégé and her/his career advancement. Successful pairs did tend to get to know one another as people, and to like one another, but it was a by-product of focusing on the protégé and on activities that would allow the protégé to grow and/or demonstrate competence and potential. Mentors introduced protégés to their networks of contacts whenever possible, got them included in projects where a junior person could make a contribution, checked with the protégés' immediate supervisors to see how they were

doing, and sought out information to feed back to the protégé that would be helpful. They didn't balk at giving tough feedback about how well the protégé had managed a presentation, or how well they were perceived to have done a critical task. Where they could, the mentors gave the protégés an opportunity to work with them on a project. In one case, the mentor worked with the protégé, giving advice where asked, but allowing the protégé to take the lead. In another, before the mentoring project had begun, the protégé had been rejected for a company program that supported further graduate study—a key ingredient for advancement. The mentor investigated why the protégé had been denied, suggested the protégé try again (something the protégé had not been planning to do), and gave the protégé advice about applying. The mentor denied doing anything to advance the protégé's chances other than gaining information the protégé otherwise could not have obtained, in itself an enormous aid. However, the protégé was accepted the second time around. In yet another case, the mentor involved the protégé in the charity work that executives in the corporation sponsored and ran. This gave the protégé exposure to executives and a chance to become known in a valued context. Thus, in successful pairings, the mentors provided ways for protégés to prove their worth; when they did, mentoring opened doors for them, a key activity in any such relationship.

CONCLUSIONS

There is much in the literature about mentoring, and most of it addresses what should be done, when, and by whom. Unfortunately, however, few of the existing studies and recommendations are based on in-depth empirical observations of actual mentoring experiences. The existing data are limited, reporting little more than the number of mentoring relationships and the types of activities performed, and there are no clear guidelines for judging the success of mentoring and for guiding future mentoring programs based on the actual successes and failures of the past.

For this reason, we investigated mentoring relationships in a variety of settings, using several techniques for pairing mentors with protégés. By studying the characteristics of the mentors, protégés, and their organizations, we took note not only of what happened but also of what did not. Not surprisingly, we found that many of the common assumptions about what makes mentoring work did not, in fact, prove to be valid in the settings we studied. There is a need for us to rethink our "common wisdom," clarify and identify our assumptions, and design empirical studies to evaluate them.

Our seven lessons learned suggest that mentoring can work in an organization that believes in diversity and is willing to dedicate resources to

support it. Perhaps equally important, our lessons strongly suggest that we have many more lessons to learn. Thus, our work should be considered only as a first step in a series of studies to tease out the important characteristics of mentors, protégés, organizations, and activities that can help to make mentoring relationships successful. We need to recognize that success means different things to different participants; our programs must be viewed from each perspective and evaluated accordingly.

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CHAPTER 16

MATCHING MENTORS AND PROTÉGÉS
Dynamics of Race, Ethinicity, Gender, and Job Location

Katherine Knight Wilcox

Today's workforce reflects increasing cultural diversity. This societal phenomenon promotes research and sparks varied reactions within workplaces and settings external to such environments. From an academically-oriented framework, Bowen, Bok, Burkhart (1999) conducted research that documents the state of affairs in higher education in "A Report Card on Diversity." A subheading, "lessons for [the] business" [sector] reflects its dual applicability. An overall finding with respect to race and inclusiveness indicates that "while we have reason to celebrate the accomplishment of much we set out to do, we still have a long way to go" (p. 149).

Questions posed to individuals about their experiences living in a culturally diverse northeastern suburban community, highlight reactions that range from a view that ten or fifteen years ago, "diversity was a big thing" to the present perception of no longer needing community- sponsored diversity celebrations because the focus is now on "cultural mingling and working together" (The New York Times, 2000, p. B7). These commentaries are offered with the concomitant insight that racial tension exists. In another setting, the FCC's proposed plan to recruit minorities and women in the broadcast and cable industry provoked highly charged reactions from

member companies (McConnell, 1999). The New York Times Magazine's July 16, 2000 cover story, "Talking About Race" featured individuals across the societal spectrum who openly shared insights about the relevancy of race to their lives.

The prevailing notion of a "glass ceiling" denoting gender as a limiting factor for women in corporations, contrasts with testimonies shared by senior-ranking women about their career journeys in the hospital industry. Although they voiced different reactions to perceptions about this gender-ascribed concept, they expressed the view that multiple interconnected factors affect and effect women's workplace mobility (Worcester, 1999). From a related perspective, Latch (1999) submits that minority women hit a "concrete ceiling," suggesting impenetrability, and in that regard advises that even when diversity workplace initiatives are offered, failure to address persistent subtle racism negatively impacts on their progress. A study to assess individuals' perceptions of barriers to upward mobility engaged matched samples of executive level males and females. A reported finding is that, women in contrast to men, verbalized challenges related to not fitting in the culture and "being excluded from informal networks" (Lyness & Thompson, 2000, p. 1). Finnigan advises that inclusiveness brings about innovation because the collective input of diversely-structured workforce teams leads to thinking and active creativity, which in turn, benefits employees and the overall workplace. The same report cites various companies' adoption of a pragmatic stance towards promoting diversity based on demographic projections that in the very near future, diversity will be a given, rather than what Herman advises is thought by some to be ". . . [a] vague, idealistic concept" (Lyness & Thompson, 2000, p. 44).

A rich body of knowledge documents the presence and persistence of culture in organizations, a phenomenon shaped by external and internal factors that requires discernment in order to successfully navigate the environment. Mentors play a role in communicating to protégés the cultural codes often referenced as an organization's written and unwritten rules. These realities set the stage for this analysis of the dynamics of race, ethnicity, and gender in regard to mentor-protégé relationships in their mutual workplace.

MENTORING IN THE WORKPLACE

Development of Formal Mentor Programs

The development of formal mentor programs and the ensuing connection of mentors and protégés represents the framework for this discussion of mentoring in the workplace. In order to understand the development of formal programs, it seems appropriate to position mentoring within a brief

historical context. Mentoring is a phenomenon that has existed over time. Many view its inception as coming from Greek mythology, when Telemachus left his son in the care of a wise man named Mentor. Hilliard III, Williams and Damali (1987) submit that mentoring originated when Ptahhotep, a sage in ancient Egypt, was selected around 25000 B.C. to share his teachings and maxims with King Assa Dhed-Ka-Ra's son. Similarly, these events reflect a model that presupposes the connection of a wise person with a much younger, inexperienced individual. These type of associations depict mentoring as informally evolving and accounts for much that has been learned about the role of mentors and about mentoring in its multiple dimensions.

Kram and Bragar (1991) advise that informal mentoring until the 1970s effected a small segment of the workforce. It was a practice that

> tended to occur spontaneously only for an elite group of high potential exempt managers who hoped to advance to senior management, and who were most like those who already occupied such positions (p. 5).

During that same period, newly hired females in commercial insurance companies shared different scenarios than males employed in the same workplace, notably the denial of field assignments and a perception of facing greater challenges to gain access to company resources (Ceniceros, 2000). By the mid 1980s there was major change: "interest in the field had finally grown to "critical mass" evidenced by planned mentoring initiatives in diverse companies (Zey, 1991, p. ix). Over time, formal mentoring programs proliferated in business, educational, and the not-for-profit sectors. External societal pressures as well as internal protocols combined to foster mentoring to promote more professionally responsive workplaces with respect to gender, race, and ethnicity. The institution of proactive and reactive measures led to widespread development of formal mentor programs based on an agenda captured in the following remarks.

> Several factors contributed to the first attempts to actively plan . . . formal mentoring relationships. With increasing numbers of women and minorities in other than blue collar jobs, and the creation of EEOC and Affirmative Action Programs, organizations became increasingly concerned with how to create advancement opportunities for other than major group members (Kram & Bragar, 1991, p. 5).

Mentor-Protégé Dyads

To set the stage for this chapter's focus on matching and mentoring in formal programs, the following briefly stated definitions distinguish the fundamental difference with respect to the two most referenced mentoring modes. Informal mentoring relationships are developed without orga-

nizational assistance [while] formal mentoring relationships are developed with organizational assistance (Ragins, Cotton, & Miller, 2000, p. 1182).

There is the underlying assumption that having a mentor presence in one's life represents positive thinking and action-taking. This stance is corroborated by Bowen, Bok and Burkhart (1999) and others who submit that mentors enhance individuals' career potential. Although mentoring is held in high regard, the literature offers experientially and theoretically based data about the multiple factors that both limit and promote successful mentoring.

Selecting mentors and connecting them with protégés represents an important programmatic task. The literature abounds with the presentation of attributes deemed desirable for prospective mentors. For example, Zey (1989) and Morton (1992 propose the following qualities: relational skills; knowledge of the company; well-respected; [being] politically astute members of the company; good motivators; teachers; skilled communicators; good developers of people; and demonstrated reflectiveness concerning the company's values. Depending on the resources from which program staff draw in the development of formal programs and in the improvement of established programs, research may or may not inform program planning.

Survey data from 723 respondents in major accounting firms indicated that those protégés who had no input in selecting mentors were less satisfied with their mentors than those that did (Viator, 1999). Depending on the setting, program participants exercise greater or lesser control in the selection process (Rubow & Jansen, 1990; Zey, 1985). It appears that programmatic protocols account for how pairings are made. Outreach to employees, even if participation is presented as voluntary is likewise based on internal factors that include the organization's goals and category of employees designated for mentoring supports. Although presented some years ago, Rubow's and Jansen's (1990) perspectives are of current import. They position mentor-protégé relationships within the context of organizational functionality.

> The pairing's power lies in the strength of the relationship rather than in the transfer of technical information, because stable human relationships form the core of any successful organization (p. 50).

The mentor-protégé link is always an important dynamic in the mentoring process. What evolves in these pairings is important to the realization of overall program goals. As previously stated, an omnipresent societal phenomenon reflected in the workforce is that of cultural diversity. This represents an interactive challenge between people that may increase the potential for learning. These factors are relevant to matching individuals in their designated roles of mentors and protégés.

Adults bring life experiences to the shared cultural terrain of the workplace and to mentoring relationships that determine their ways of knowing and acting. The ensuing discussion is contextually situated within the experiences of mentors and protégés employed in a major corporate workplace.

A STUDY OF MENTORING IN A CORPORATE SETTING

Overview of Study

The purpose of this study was to analyze the dynamics of mentoring and adult learning according to the perceptions of mentors and protégés within the context of their shared experiences in one corporate setting. The research was designed to elicit descriptive data and insights about mentors' and protégés' reflections about their experiences that would, in turn, lead to an analysis about the coherence of elements in the overall mentoring process that effect mentors' and protégés' relationships and learning. A number of assumptions influenced the research topic. Included are the researcher's experience in the field of mentoring and recognition that mentoring denotes complexity and challenge with respect to relational and organizational factors. Overall, the intent of the research was to provide increased understanding of the mentoring phenomenon towards the specific purpose of facilitating more informed research and practice.

Mentoring issues discussed in this chapter represent one data-based segment extrapolated from a larger body of research, the author's doctoral dissertation, in which mentoring from multiple perspectives was examined and analyzed. Race, ethnicity, gender, and, to a lesser extent, program participants' job locations emerged as important dynamics relevant to matching mentors and protégés (Wilcox, 1995).

Research Setting

The setting for the research is a corporation named HARB by the researcher to maintain the agreed upon anonymity. It is an affiliate with Jayson Health Care (JHC), a pseudonym for a global conglomerate, one of the world's largest and most diversified health care companies whose products are sold in more than 150 countries. A reading of various company documents revealed that the mentor program is positioned as evidence of

HARB's commitment to enhance employees' opportunity for career advancement in the managerial, professional, and technical areas.

According to the program's founder, the impetus for a mentor program was initially related to HARB's concern about the high turnover of minority employees. However, from the program's inception in 1985, the researcher learned that the company's policy is to offer mentoring to all newly-hired exempt employees to facilitate transition to the HARB environment. The founder reported that:

> the decision to make mentoring supports available to this employee category was to prevent any backlash against it [mentor program] as preferential treatment and every new employee deserves that kind of ease over the threshold in a new place anyway [interview, 8/25/92].

Methodology

Qualitative case study was used as the investigative method because the purpose of the study was to "elicit people's perceptions, to enter their interpretive frames of reference and to understand how they see the world" (Brookfield, 1987a, p.10). Bogdan and Biklen (1982) cite interconnected elements of qualitative research essential to understanding individuals' frames of reference: the significance of the context; the generation of descriptive data; researchers' concern with the process; inductively-determined analyses; and meaning derived from the context of individuals' experiences. How individuals construe reality is at the heart of the qualitative process. Toward the goal of illuminating the mentoring phenomenon in its complexity, the meaning adults attribute to their experiences can only be discerned from methodology that permits insight, discovery, and interpretation, the underlying tenets of case study research (Merriam, 1988). Merriam further advises that qualitative research proceeds from the premise of multiple realities derived from individuals' experientially-based perceptions. Qualitative inquiry was particularly relevant to this study because there is an absence of clarity about the mentoring phenomenon and there is little research about mentoring and adult learning that derives from the experiences of mentors and protégés in formal programs.

Semi-structured interviews, critical incidents, a demographic inventory, and document reviews served as the methods for gathering data. Consistent with case study methodology, the interview with open-ended questions posed to mentors and protégés was considered pivotal to the process of enabling individuals to reflect on their perceptions.

Final approval for the interview schedule came about as the result of a three-phase process of analysis, modification, and reduction of the number of items relevant to the study's focus and purpose. The semi-structured interview schedule encompassed themes from the critical incidents and

the review of the literature. It comprised 14 questions and covered four conceptual categories: mentor-protégé experiences; informal learning and mentoring; reflections about the mentor program and organizational culture.

The volume of data generated from verbatim transcriptions of the hour long taped interviews presented a labor intensive, data-immersion, and time-consuming process. Strauss' (1987) coding paradigm provided a theoretical framework that set the stage for open coding of qualitative data, a process that involved outreach to four persons for the purpose of inter-rater reliability. The feedback received resulted in refining the codes and, subsequently, the coding of the remaining transcripts.

The data on matching mentors and protégés, once coded, revealed a challenge as to how to portray the interviewees' individual and collective responses about mentor-protégé matching relevant to race, ethnicity, gender and participants' workplace operational area. This researcher moment is captured in the question: What type graphic presentation could be used to make the rich data "come alive?" Drawing from Miles and Huberman (1984), an expanded adaptation of their conceptually clustered matrix served to visually capture the participants' actual voices by "[to] follow[ing] the data where they beckon" (p. 112) (See Attachment A extracted from a ten page matrix).

To inform readers' understanding of the reference points that served to focus mentors' and protégés' responses, the following questions were posed to each mentor and protégé during the interview.

- In your relationship with your protégé, has gender been an important factor? If "Yes,," in what ways? If "No," explain.
- In making the initial match between mentors and protégés, do you think that gender should be taken into account?
- In your relationship with your protégé, has race or ethnicity been an important factor? If "Yes," in what ways? If "No," explain.
- In making the initial match between mentors and protégés, do you think that race or ethnicity should be taken into account?
- In your relationship with your protégé, was the fact that you were in different departments or divisions of importance to the relationship? If "Yes," in what ways? If "No," explain.
- In making the initial match between mentors and protégés, do you think that the departments or divisions in which mentors and protégés are located should be taken into account?

Study Population

The research population comprised 26 interviewed program participants: 9 mentors, 13 protégés and a 4 person subgroup. The latter category

denotes those individuals who experienced being both mentors and protégés. Data from this group were studied separately to discern the presence of thematic patterns which might distinguish their experiences from their counterparts. When dictated by the findings, the subgroup's experiences are highlighted. Additionally, 28 individuals (11 mentors and 17 protégés) had input in the study; they completed the data inventory, the critical incident instrument, and signed the consent form to participate in the study but for various reasons were not interviewed. (See Attachments B through E for mentor and protégé profiles). (The program policy of cross-functional pairings accounted for how partners were formed).

VOICES FROM THE WORKPLACE

This section illuminates the study populations' perspectives and perceptions about the relevance of race, ethnicity, gender, and workplace assignments to their dyad relationships. Each issue although discretely addressed, nevertheless, embodies interrelated themes.

Gender

Reflections about the organization's culture and gender emerged in various ways. One mentor made the assumption that she was selected to mentor a female employee because others believed the protégé needed to understand dress code protocols. In the instance of a protégé who described her mentoring relationship as friendly and effective, the researcher's questions caused her to pause and contemplate the possible benefit of same gender mentoring for reasons related to the transmission of organizational culture.

> I think the good points of having a female mentor would have been some of the things that do go into company culture towards women that men usually don't pick up on.

The above mentor likewise remarked about differences in what and how females and males learn. He affirmed cross-gender matching for reasons partially attributed to the absence of "have[ing] the male bonding thing to deal with." In a similar vein, another male mentor did not make a case for same gender matching. He explained that gender was a relational concern for him because of his life experiences conveyed in the statement: "I find it easier to talk with women." He made further observations about the issue

of gender, in general, which support an advocacy towards openness in regard to gender and matching.

> I would say a good percentage of women don't understand how men think and I don't think men understand how women think.

Same gender matching affected one protégé in a special way as disclosed in her comments about the mentor's approach in juxtaposition to her perceived mentoring needs.

> . . . she was blazing a trail, so to speak and encouraging me to do that . . . her advice was coming across as a woman supporting another woman going into management. But, that wasn't my direct problem.

One female protégé considered matching male employees with female mentors to be a positive move because of assertions about supposedly gender-determined qualities.

> I feel strongly that a woman protégé would do best in most cases with a woman mentor. But, I'm not so sure a male protégé wouldn't also be better with a female mentor.. . . A gross generalization, women are more approachable . . . less intimidating. And when you're brand new, I can't see this [mentoring] working real well with a real intimidating person.

This female mentor addresses the challenge of dealing with issues of both gender and race.

> Yes . . . we all like to think we're open-minded, we're sensitive, we understand what the experience is to be a woman, or to be a minority, but the truth of the matter is, we don't.. . . Unless you've been there, you don't. I think gender is easier to get at than the minority issues. I don't know how you get at that.

In discussing matching and mentoring at HARB, a male mentor communicated that he also reaches out to non-mentored female employees (i.e. not program participants) because of his observance of workplace behavior concerning gender and career mobility evidenced by . . . there is the good old boy network and there's not as strong a good old girl network." The reality that the above mentor addressed and sought to redress on an individual basis, is corroborated by a [non-Caucasian] male protégé's view about dyad partnering, which from his experience, suggests that "in order to move, more than likely you would want to talk to a white male."

A total of seven mentors and protégés reported considerations other than gender as having greater bearing on the quality of protégé support. Mentor attributes highlighted by this group include: mentors' professional experiences and skills; motivation; interest in protégés' career issues in

conjunction with mentors' career orientation and mentors having "winning" personalities. However, this group did not dismiss the significance of gender in the workplace as these remarks reveal.

> . . . it would be to the company's advantage to sometimes match. . . incoming entry level men with higher level position women . . . that here at _____ gender doesn't really matter. And, that it's not only white males that get ahead.

A subgroup protégé explains his sense of gender being an issue with the statement that "there's still an undercurrent of sexism." Relevant to that belief, a mentor communicates his projected sense of comfort level that reveals attitudinal and behavioral aspects of his being.

> I have to admit to being a bit of a chauvinist. I think I would be more comfortable, at least early on, if my mentor were male . . . I personally think that it would be ego on my part . . . I like to be in control of the person. . .

Race and Ethnicity

One person considered race or ethnicity to have been of some relevance to his mentoring experience because of his questioning of the company's mentoring practices concerning minority employees.

> I would say [race/ethnicity] plays a part . . . I thought the mentoring program was just something that was offered to every new employee, and I found a couple weeks later . . . the other two that I started with, that they weren't given that option . . . just through the grapevine when . . . minorities come . . . you know like in research . . . they get very concerned whether or not you're going to fit in.

The range of reactions includes a protégé indicating that the "thought [race and ethnicity] never came to my mind" to another protégé's reflection that having gone through the experience, I'm not so sure that it [race/ethnicity] doesn't need to be done." [taken into account]

A number of mentors believe that their mentoring relationships were positive and from their perspective race and ethnicity did not a play a role in what transpired. They recommend that their protégés' reactions be sought. In fact, the researcher learned that one protégé's dissatisfaction with his mentor was directly attributed to underlying issues about race and ethnicity that limited his [the protégé's] experience.

Race and cultural diversity are viewed by individuals in interconnected ways. A mentor stated that although race and ethnicity were not discernible factors in the relationship, meaning for him problematic, he appar-

ently took a positive stance about his own learning that resulted from having been in a cross-gender and cross-racial match.

> . . . I found it interesting to listen to some of the different cultural backgrounds, some of the customs that she and her family were used to that were different from my own.

Although initially recommending ethnically-matched dyads, this mentor discusses the benefit that might accrue to mentors connected in cross-ethnic dyads and the potential outcome for protégés depending on whether adherence is given to her cited caveats.

> . . . And on the other side, it might open the eyes of the mentor to have someone of a different race . . . to open their eyes to the other person's experiences. And it's a true learning experience. And don't deny those feelings . . . could be a damaging, negative situation for the protégé.

Responding from the dual perspective of mentor and protégé, a subgroup member's comments illustrate views that highlight mentor attitude and the role of protégés.

> . . . The mentor ought to be willing to work with anyone, gender, race, age . . . because it's really driven by the protégé after the initial mentor discussion of here I am.

Reflecting on whether race ought to be considered, this protégé stated the researcher posed a "tough" question. His reflection triggered a special "take" about matching and ethnicity.

> . . . If the protégé is a white male, my inclination would be to say "no." If the protégé is not a white male, then it becomes a lot tougher to answer the question . . . I am a white male. I don't feel I can answer for somebody else. I would think African Americans, in particular . . . are up against certain "hangovers" . . . in the corporate world.

Apropos to the above perspective, a female protégé articulated the viewpoint that having been in this country for several years, she "feel[s] comfortable with just about anyone." Drawing from her experience and projecting the challenges that other groups might face in the workplace, this commentary is contextually expansive in terms of a rationale for taking race and ethnicity into account.

> We live in a racist society, black people understand white people's situations pretty damned well. But, I'm not so sure that white people understand . . . I'm not sure that just any white person would be as sensitive to what a young woman starting in the company would as somebody who has been through it.

In contrast to the above response, a male mentor projected negative consequences for the workplace if race and ethnicity enter the decision-making process.

> Maybe I'm being naïve about it . . . I think all those things have broken down a lot more in the last ten or fifteen years . . . If you take that into consideration, we might polarize everything even more. The goal is to have a well integrated organization and might as well start from the ground floor when somebody comes in.

And, responding from a similar perspective, a female mentor advises

> . . . If you're going by a natural selection process, it probably wouldn't have wound up that way because of numbers and why not pick . . . the best match without respect to ethnicity or race.

The following viewpoint, seemingly compatible with the above statement, augments the "dialogue" by addressing, according to this male mentor's perspective, both the "origin" and the effect of focusing upon race and ethnicity.

> . . . That's part and parcel of the root of the problem of race relations that you've got to worry whether you set one race up with another. That's exactly why there's a problem. That you've got to be thinking about it so much.

In comparison to many of her peers' more embellished reactions is that of a protégé who offers a concise, home-spun type response which, on one hand may appear to give short shrift to serious issues, but in actuality simply explained her position vis-a-vis those from a different race or ethnic background based on the personal realm of her life: . . . different strokes for different folks . . . My best girlfriend is Spanish.

Participants' Workplace Location

The issue of workplace location as a factor when matching mentor and protégé yielded little in terms of findings or decisions one might make. HARB has a policy of connecting mentors with protégés from different departments or divisions. Respondents viewed this positively although a few of them indicated it might also be helpful to have someone in their own departments serve as a mentor, even if only informally. Thus, while it appears that having a mentor from a workplace location other than their own worked well in this situation, this finding neither supports nor rejects the possibility that having a mentor from another workplace location would be better or worse. This is an area that bears further study.

SUMMARY

The issues that emerged from the study embody parallel and divergent viewpoints. Explicitly or implicitly, gender, race and ethnicity were frequently addressed by a number of participants. They responded from the dual perspective of idealism and realism according to their perception of what is and what should be or their direct knowledge that some groups are differentially treated because of their race and ethnicity.

Multiple views regarding same gender, cross-gender, same, and different race-ethnic matches were considered in terms of benefits, challenges, and limitations for protégés, mentors, and the organization. Gender and race were treated as separate entities or intertwined depending on the participants' approach to the question and their own experiences.

The discussion about gender prompted the delineation of mentor attributes believed to be more important than gender. In contrast, no one verbalized factors that might transcend race. Respondents did feel that mentors should possess the qualities and willingness to mentor any employee. The position taken about gender did not, according to their perspective, diminish the significance of gender as a workplace issue. Although many interviewees openly talked about living in a racist society and that discrimination occurs, or that negative attitudes are directed towards "minority" groups, some, while not dismissing these realities, believed that mentors and protégés should be connected according to judgments concerning the best match rather than considering gender or race.

Participants' workplace location did not generate divergent opinions or expansive responses. Mentors and protégés attributed numerous benefits to the present policy of cross-functional pairing because of their sense that such matches: positively affect learning about the company and its culture through the mentors' experiences; reduce protégé stress, because these partnerships foster openness to discuss conflicts or problems between themselves and the persons in their reporting line, and offer exposure to different perspectives about the HARB environment. However, respondents advocate synergistic connections between departments to reduce challenge for mentors and to maximize support to protégés. The institutionalization of cross-functional teams throughout the company supports mentoring arrangements that are similarly structured.

CONCLUSION

This case study, designed according to qualitative methodology, was grounded in the principles of adult learning theory, the understanding of

which is critical to knowing how adults learn and how to facilitate their learning. The literature rarely mentions such criteria as a prerequisite for mentoring or as a tenet in training. The respondents revealed divergent and similar perspectives on the same themes reflective of Merriam's concept of multiple realities (1988). Adult learning principles with its concomitant strategies and activities represent a fundamental missing element in preparation for mentoring. Planned adult education experiences to promote effective dialogue according to individuals' contextually-based frames of reference can serve as important building blocks for reflective behavior. Drawing from the literature and the interpretation of the data, there is evidence of the centrality of context in linking learning and mentoring. In asking the rhetorical question, "Meaning in Context: Is There Any Other Kind?, Mishler (1979) submits

> . . . one side of the paradox is that we all know that human action and experience are context dependent and can only be understood within their contexts . . . as theorists and researchers, we tend to behave as if context were the enemy of understanding rather than the resource for understanding which it is in our everyday lives (p. 2).

The totality of adults' experiences provides the lens through which they "see the world." It is their perceptions, attitudes, assumptions, ways of acting and even their stereotypical thinking that give meaning to experience. The questions to which the research population responded helped them to pause and to ponder issues concerning dyad partnering and the dynamics of gender, race, ethnicity, and their workplace assignments relevant to the context and culture of their shared workplace. The recommendations for conducting further research that follow are based on incorporating theoretically-oriented adult learning strategies for the purpose of enhancing mentoring relationships and strengthening the organizations in which formal mentoring occurs based on the rationale for instituting such initiatives.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

- Conduct studies of matched pairs for the explicit purpose of comparing and contrasting partners' reactions to gender, race, and workplace assignment in regard to their perceptions of and the effect on mentor-protégé relationships and learning.
- Conduct qualitative case studies of formal mentor programs developed to recruit and retain "minorities" and assess whether issues related to the initial purpose for offering mentoring is factored into the training experiences. Design research methodology that pro-

motes participant reflection on issues related to cultural diversity in the workplace.

- Conduct studies of mentor training models in different organizations to assess whether the training designs are grounded in adult learning principles. Address the extent to which training incorporate issues of gender, race and ethnicity with respect to enabling adults to draw from their experiences for new learning purposes.

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ATTACHMENT A
EXCERPT FROM MATRIX
FACTORS IN MATCHING: EXPERIENCES AND PERCEPTIONS OF MENTORS AND PROTÉGÉS AT HARB

	GENDER		*RACE/ETHNICITY*		*WORKPLACE LOCATIONS*	
RESPONDENT	*Mentoring Experiences*	*Program Considerations*	*Mentoring Experiences*	*Program Considerations*	*Mentoring Experiences*	*Program Considerations*
#11 8Mentor Male	No, if anything I find it easier to talk with women.	Yes. I would say a good percentage of women don't understand how men think and I don't think men understand how women think. From my experience with M., it sounded like some woman-oriented, woman-man issues.	No. Issues that arose, race or ethnicity had no bearing.	No. That's a part and parcel of the root of the problem of the race relations that you've got to worry whether you set one race up with another. That's exactly why there's a problem. That you've got to be thinking about it so much.	Because they were in different departments, I wasn't as familiar with what their job requirements are, other than what they told me.	I think it is better that it's someone that has nothing to do with that area, so they can be objective.

ATTACHMENT A
Continued

RESPONDENT	GENDER		RACE/ETHNICITY		WORKPLACE LOCATIONS	
	Mentoring Experiences	*Program Considerations*	*Mentoring Experiences*	*Program Considerations*	*Mentoring Experiences*	*Program Considerations*
#119 Mentor Male	No...in the informal system of providing guidance and being a mentor, I've worked with many people of the opposite gender, and I don't believe that is an obstacle.	No. I don't think it is appropriate to limit a person's exposure or experience or their sex. The fact of business is that there are not many women who have gone terribly high up the corporate ladder. I think the ability to interact with other women who have been successful is somewhat limited in that they have other jobs to do.	No. We're both Caucasian males. Again, in my experience I've worked with everybody. I don't limit my fount of information because of a person's background.	No. For the same reasons.	Sometimes it makes the insights on my part a little bit difficult.	I think it depends.

#102 Mentor Female	No. But I think one of the reasons I was asked to do it was because of my gender. Because of some of the dress issues and appearance issues, human resources felt that I could maybe give her some guidance in those areas.	Yes. We all like to think we're open-minded, we're sensitive, we understand what the experience is to be a woman, or to be a minority, but the truth of the matter is we don't. Unless you've been there you don't. I think gender is easier to get at than the minority issue. I don't know how you get at that.	To me, no.	I think it probably should. Asking protégé would you prefer to be ethnically matched. And on the other side, it might open the eyes of the mentor to have someone of a different race...to open their eyes to the other person's experience. And it's a true learning experience. And don't deny those feelings...could be damaging, negative situation for protégé.	I think so. I think she felt more comfortable sharing things with me because I wasn't in that part of the department...I was able to give her some perspective on the impact of the kinds of things she was working with...when you are in your little microcosm down in the research lab, you don't necessarily know.	I think they should come from different areas. Although, I think there should be a certain synergy between the departments. You'll probably find people in your own area who can serve as an informal mentor.

ATTACHMENT B

DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE—MENTORS

Respondent	*Gender*	*Race/ Ethnicity*	*Age Range*	*Marital Status*	*Education (Highest Level Completed)*	*Years In Company*
#108	F	C	37-43	M	H.S.	21
#111	M	C	50-55	M	M.S.	25
#112	F	C	37-43	M	H.S.	13
#113	M	C	44-49	M	MBA	17
#116	F	C	44-49	M	B.S.	15
#117	M	C	31-36	M	B.S./B.A.	9
#118	M	C	31-36	M	B.A.	3.5
#119	M	C	44-49	M	MBA	20

DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE -- SUBGROUP - MENTORS AND PROTÉGÉS

Respondent	*Gender*	*Race/ Ethnicity*	*Age Range*	*Marital Status*	*Education (Highest Level Completed)*	*Years In Company*
#102	F	C	37-43	NM	B.S.	3.5
#114	M	C	31-36	M	B.S./B.A.	3.5
#105	M	C	37-43	M	M.S.	5
#106 M C 44-49 M MBA 3						

Race/Ethnicity:	*Martial Status:*
A-Asian	M-Married
AA-African American	NM-Never Married
C-Caucasian	D-Divorced
H-Hispanic	W-Widowed
NA-Native American	S-Separated
O-Other	

ATTACHMENT C

DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE—PROTÉGÉS

Respondent	*Gender*	*Race/ Ethnicity*	*Age Range*	*Marital Status*	*Education (Highest Level Completed)*	*Years In Company*
#158	M	AA	37-43	M	M.S.	4.5
#159	M	C	31-36	M	Ph.D.	1
#161	F	C	25-30	M	M.S.	1
#162	F	C	37-43	M	M.S.	2.5
#166	M	C	56-60	D	B.A./ B.M.E.	5
#167	F	O	24 or under	NM	B.S.	1.5
#169	F	A	37-43	M	M.S.	.75
#170	F	C/NA	31-36	M	B.A.	4
#171	F	C	25-30	M	M.A.	1
#174	M	C	37-43	M	Ph.D.	1.5
#181	M	AA	31-36	M	B.A.	2
#186	F	C	25-30	NM	M.DIV.	1.5
#187	F	C	44-49	D	H.S.	3

Race/Ethnicity:	*Martial Status:*
A-Asian	M-Married
AA-African American	NM-Never Married
C-Caucasian	D-Divorced
H-Hispanic	W-Widowed
NA-Native American	S-Separated
O-Other	

ATTACHMENT D

MENTOR SUBGROUP (were protégés)

#102	F	C	NOL	F	C
#104	M	C	(1) NI(2) NI	M M	C O
#105	M	C	LC	M	AA?
#106	M	C	(1) #181(2) NR	M M	AA O

PROTEGE SUBGROUP (were mentors)

Protege	*Gender*	*Race/ ethncity*	*Mentor*	*Gender*	*Race/ ethnicity*
#102	F	C	LC	M	C
#104	M	C	NI	M	C
#105	M	C	LC	M	C
#106	M	C	LC	M	C

Legend:

A-Asian
AA-African American
C-Caucasian
H-Hispanic
NA-Native American
O-Other

CNI-consent, not interviewed
NI-no consent for interview
LC-left company
NOL-not on list
NR-no response

ATTACHMENT E

STUDY POPULATION: MENTOR-PROTÉGÉS DYADS
PROTÉGÉS

Mentor	*Gender*	*Race/ Ethnicity*	*Protege*	*Gender*	*Race/ Ethnicity*
#158	M	AA	LC	M	C
#159	M	C	#119	M	C
#161	F	C	NR	M	H
#162	F	C	NI	M	C
#166	M	C	NR	M	C
#167	F	O	#117	M	C
#169	F	A	NR	F	C
#170	F	C/NA	NR	F	C
#171	F	C	LC	F	C
#174	M	C	NR	M	C
#181	M	AA	#106	M	C
#186	F	C	NR	F	AAZ
#187	F	C	NI	M	H

Legend:
A-Asian
AA-African American
C-Caucasian
H-Hispanic
NA-Native American
O-Other

CNI-consent, not interviewed
NI-no consent for interview
LC-left company
NOL-not on list
NR-no response

SECTION V

ANALYSIS AND CONCLUSIONS

CHAPTER 17

EXAMINING THE ORGANIZATIONAL AND HUMAN DIMENSIONS OF MENTORING
A Textual Data Analysis

Frances K. Kochan

As I approached the writing of this chapter, reading and re-reading the manuscripts, I became keenly aware of the common organizational and human dimensions of mentoring across the varied situations and settings in which it occurred. I am indebted to the authors who so willingly wrote of the pain and joy, the failures and successes, the negatives and positives inherent in the mentoring programs and relationships they so eloquently shared.

I viewed the development of this final chapter as a research endeavor using a case study analysis. I considered each chapter as a case from which I extrapolated data for analysis. Gathering, reading, and editing the chapters gave me a comprehensive sense of the content of the book and provided me with a holistic view of the mentoring process as described by the various authors. Having acquired this view, I conducted a content analysis of the organizational and human domains of mentoring that emerged from the mentoring programs and relationships described. I decided to examine the organizational aspects of mentoring first because, in many of the chapters, it provided the contextual framework in which the human dimensions were formed.

When examining dimensions of the organization I reviewed all chapters, but dealt primarily with those chapters that included in-depth information about organizational structures (Avani, Watts, Ervelles, and King; Campbell and Campbell; Harris; Martin; Sullivan- Brown; Zellner and Erlandson; and Mertz and Pfleeger). I conducted my analysis by listing any relevant statements, concepts or actions in each chapter that were related to the organizational aspects of mentoring. After completing the editing process I formally examined each chapter a minimum of two times to be sure I had gleaned all of the relevant data. I referred back to the chapters during the entire analysis process. Next, I conducted a constant comparative analysis (Merriam) of the data to identify themes and categories. When saturation occurred and no new themes emerged, I discontinued the analysis.

I used a similar process to examine the human dimensions of mentoring. For this analysis however, I reviewed all of the chapters, since they all dealt with the human element of mentoring even if at varying degrees of specificity and detail. I began the analysis by culling each chapter for any content related to human aspects of mentoring; and listing these aspects chapter-by-chapter. As I did this, categories and themes began to emerge and I initiated the analysis process by organizing them as they began to flow from the data. After conducting this review of each chapter two to three times, dependent on the length and complexity of the chapter, I began to compress the themes until the human dimension were identified.

Concurrent with my analyses of the organizational and human dimensions of mentoring, I examined words or phrases that seemed to capture the essence of the mentoring experience. I completed my analysis by reflecting on these data and using them to develop a definition of mentoring.

This chapter presents the results of my analysis. I do not note each instance in which the themes presented are found, but instead present examples or note chapters or authors where the theme is particularly powerful, to help enhance the reader's understanding of the types of experiences or actions that comprise the category. The first section deals with the critical elements that must be considered in the creation and implementation of organizational mentoring programs. The next section details the human attributes that made mentoring successful in the situations described in this text. This description is followed by a proposed definition of mentoring based upon the findings. The chapter concludes with a series of issues and questions that bear further examination and research.

ORGANIZATIONAL DIMENSIONS OF SUCCESSFUL MENTORING PROGRAMS

A primary goal of any organizational mentoring program built upon a sincere interest in developing personnel and the organization, is to maximize

the success of both. My analysis of the chapters in this book indicated that there are three dimensions that must be present to create high levels of program success. I have labeled these dimensions as the "S Dimensions." These dimensions are: System, Structure, and Support. It is essential to understand that all of these factors are interrelated rather than separate and distinct. Thus, in practice, at times there will be an overlap between them. They are examined individually in this text to enable those developing mentoring programs to consider the dimensions that lead to success so they can more easily address them in the planning and implementation processes.

Taking a Systemic View

Over the last few decades, researchers of organizational design have proposed that leaders take a systemic view of their businesses, institutions, and organizations (Senge, 1990). This perspective suggests that those who want their organizations to succeed must establish collaborative environments within which the vision of the organization is established and the operations structured. The analysis of the programs described in this text indicate that those who engage in developing and implementing mentoring programs must likewise take a systemic view of the process.

The data gleaned from these chapters speak to the need for mentoring to be an integral rather than a peripheral part of the organization. To be successful, mentoring must be connected to organizational goals and purposes in visible ways and address the individual needs of those involved. The ultimate goal should be to create a culture of mentoring in which mentoring relationships are considered integral to the well-being of the organization and the people within it. There appear to be three elements within these dimensions which organizations must incorporate into their mentoring programs. They must:

- consider the context
- visibly connect program goals to the goals of the organization, and
- address the individual needs of the mentor and the mentee.

The Context

One of the first issues to be addressed in developing a mentoring program within an organization is the context in which it is to occur. For example, Avani notes that part of the reason that the GEAR-UP project did not succeed as well as planned was that they did not consider the unique characteristics of each of the six sites and the differing roles that each coordinator would fill because of the differences in the environments in which

they were operating. Likewise, Watts and his co-authors emphasize the importance of having mentors become familiar with the school context in which their student mentees functioned prior to attempting to work with them.

Making Connections

Mentoring programs must also assure that their purposes are connected to the goals of the organization in visible ways. Thus, the program described by Avani was viewed as an extension of their primary goal of assuring student success through connecting schools and the community. Likewise, in Campbell and Campbell's chapter, mentoring was part of a university goal to enhance student retention and success. This connection to organizational goals was evident in all chapters that described organizational mentoring except that shared by Mertz and Pfleeger. The organization did not reward or recognize those who mentored others. Nor was there any indication that the mentoring program was part of an organizational commitment to mentee or organizational success. This lack of a visible connection between what was espoused and what was practiced in the organizations led to a weakness in the mentoring program.

Meet Needs.

A third important element in creating mentoring programs that incorporate a systemic perspective is assuring that the individual needs of the mentors and the mentees are addressed within the program design. Avani shared that when they initiated the program, not considering the childcare needs of parents hindered program success. Campbell and Campbell, Harris, Watts, Ervelles and King, Sullivan-Brown, and Martin all emphasized the importance of assuring that the individual needs of those involved in the mentoring process are considered prior to the development and implementation of organizational mentoring programs.

Establishing Organizational Structures

Based on the data contained in these chapters, if organizations want their mentoring programs to succeed, they should establish structures to establish, implement, and monitor them. Thus, organizations must:

- engage in planning and continuous assessment
- prepare mentors and mentees for their roles, and
- provide human and financial resources to implement and coordinate the program.

Planning and Assessment

The concept of planning is integrated into most of the programs described in this text. The plans provided mechanisms to assure that the programs were connected to the purposes and goals of the organization, included program guidelines and policies, and assisted program directors and organizations to assess the operations and outcomes of the mentoring initiatives. Without such a plan, assessment, which is an essential element of program success would be difficult to implement, if not impossible.

A number of the authors used the planning process to pilot smaller projects before bringing them to scale (Martin, Mertz & Pfleeger; Zellner & Erlandson). Those that did not suggested that it would have been beneficial to do so (Avani, Harris). No matter what the scale of the mentoring program, a single site, a program, or a statewide initiative, planning and continuous assessment are an absolute necessity.

All authors emphasized the value of continually assessing program effectiveness. Understood within such processes is the willingness to support what is working and to change what is hindering program success. It was this connection between planning and assessment that led Avani to recognize program failures and make adjustments to enhance program success. Harris and Sullivan-Brown address the importance and value of planning and assessment in the programs they examined. Extensive planning and assessment processes enabled Campbell and Campbell to isolate factors that hindered and facilitated program success and to adjust their programs accordingly. Thus, they changed the mentor/mentee ratio, expanded incentives, and engaged in more in-depth mentor/mentee pairing.

Preparation of Participants

Another essential element in structuring mentoring programs is to have mechanisms in place that will prepare mentors and mentees to assume their roles and responsibilities and effectively achieve the organizational goals and purposes of the mentoring program. Many of the authors wrote about the problems that ensued when mentors and mentees were not properly prepared. For example, Mertz and Pfleeger note the difficulties that occurred because mentors and mentees did not know what they were to do nor did they clearly understand the purposes of the mentoring process. Individuals were not sure of their roles, resulting in mentors who viewed their mentees as not being actively engaged in seeking their help, and mentees who thought they should wait for the mentors to take the initiative. Avani identified similar problems when parents did not really understand their role or the program purposes. Most of the authors suggested that training and preparation activities should be used. This aspect of mentoring will be dealt with in more detail in this chapter when I discuss the human aspect of mentoring.

Resources

A final important structural aspect of organizational mentoring programs is providing financial and human resources to assure that program plans are properly implemented and assessed. Financial resources are needed to provide small comforts such as food for meetings and get-togethers and for the larger aspects of program operations. Included among these are implementing adequate mentor and mentee training, assuring adequate time to meet and share (Avani, Campbell & Campbell; Martin, Mertz & Pfleeger; Zellner & Erlandson), providing incentives (Campbell & Campbell; Tauer, Mertz, & Pfleeger), and building in resources and personnel for program coordination (Avani, Campbell & Campbell; Mertz & Pfleeger).

Careful attention should be given to what percent of resources will be allocated to mentoring endeavors. This decision relates back to the systemic perspective and the need for organizations to make their commitment visible. Employees in the organization will tend to relate the allocation of resources to program importance and behave accordingly.

Creating Systems of Support

Strongly related to the structures that must be in place to make mentoring programs successful is the need to support those who engage in mentoring programs. The authors of this text suggest that to provide such support organizations should:

- assure program coordination,
- guide the pairing and functioning of mentoring relationships, and
- provide incentives and recognition to those participating in mentoring endeavors.

Coordination

The value of assigning someone to coordinate mentoring programs was obvious throughout the chapters as authors shared the numerous ways in which they brought groups together to plan, engaged mentors and mentees in being successful, and used evaluative data to strengthen and improve programs. Providing personnel who are responsible for program success transmits the organizational commitment to the endeavor and helps to assure program success. The authors also noted the importance of having someone present when problems arise. Without such support and attention to needs, mentoring relationships and the program can become negative (Avani, Campbell & Campbell; Martin, Mertz & Pfleeger; Sullivan-Brown; Tauer, Wilcox, Zellner & Erlandson).

Pairing Participants

Another important aspect of system support is careful attention to the pairing of mentors and sustained guidance of mentoring activities. Campbell and Campbell present a very thorough review of the careful processes they engaged in when matching mentors. Power issues can also create difficulties and must be attended to as relationships are formed and developed (Enomoto, Gardner, & Grogan; Mertz & Pflegeer; Watts, Ervelles, & King; Wilcox).

A primary focus when creating a mentoring partnership seems to be to match people with a common perspective and assure that the mentor has the knowledge and experience that matches the needs of the mentee. In the settings in which the mentoring programs described occurred, when matching mentors and mentees, issues of gender, race, and social class did not seem to be as problematic in the relationships described as did style, personality, a willingness to commit to the relationship, and commonality of perspectives about the purposes by the mentors and mentees.

A caution, noted by most authors when dealing with organizational mentoring, is assuring that mentoring responsibilities are not imposed upon individuals but that mentors are allowed to volunteer to participate in program activities. Not all individuals have the desire or capacity to serve as mentors (Avani, Campbell & Campbell; Harris; Sullivan-Brown; Watts, Ervelles, & King; Zellner & Erlandson). There is a delicate balance between building a culture that honors and supports mentoring, rewarding those who willingly participate, and assuring that those that do not become involved are not punished.

In addition to paying careful attention to the selection and pairing of mentors, it is imperative that coordinators disseminate information to everyone in the organization regarding the purposes of the program and the roles and responsibilities of all involved. It also seems vital that mentors and mentees receive training in their roles and responsibilities and guidance as the mentoring relationship evolves. Many of the authors (Campbell & Campbell; Harris; Mertz & Pfleeger) brought our attention to the differing perspectives of mentees and mentors related to the purposes of mentoring.

Incentives

A final important element in providing support to those involved in mentoring programs is including incentives for participation and recognizing and celebrating accomplishments. Campbell and Campbell offered some very innovative methods for both types of activities. Avani spoke movingly about his lack of appreciation for those who were successful and the need to recognize efforts in visible ways. He also shared the problems that occurred when the incentives given were not considered as relevant or appropriate to the mentors. Organizations need to be particularly sensitive

to assuring that mentors believe their efforts are valued and that they will receive rewards and recognition for the time and energy they are giving to the effort. When mentors feel that they are being ignored or even penalized because the time they are giving to the effort is taking away from other responsibilities without compensation, or when mentoring appears to be detrimental to their own welfare within the organization, it will become increasingly difficult to engage people in mentoring programs.

SUMMARY OF THE ORGANIZATIONAL DIMENSIONS OF MENTORING PROGRAMS

Based upon the mentoring programs described in this book, organizations wishing to create successful mentoring programs must assure that their programs take a systemic perspective, are structurally integrated into the organization, and that those who participate in them are supported and rewarded. Table 1 presents a summary of the three "S" dimensions. The table lists the dimensions, the elements that should be addressed within

TABLE 1
The "S" and Elements of Successful Mentoring Programs

Dimension	**Systemic View**
Element	Consider the context
Questions	What elements in the organization will hinder the mentoring program?
	What elements in the organization will facilitate the mentoring program?
	What can be done to minimize the barriers to the mentoring program?
	What can be done to maximize the facilitative elements that will support the mentoring program?
Element	Visibly connect the mentoring program to the goals of the organization
Questions	How does the mentoring program meet the organizations goals?
	What policies should be developed to make this connection visible?
	What other activities should be implemented to make the connections between these goals evident throughout the organization?
Element	Address the individual needs of the mentor and mentee.
Questions	What will motivate individuals to participate as mentors and mentees?
	What will hinder mentor and mentees from participating and forming successful relationships?
	What activities and actions need to be taken to assist participants to overcome the barriers to their success?

TABLE 1
Continued

Dimension	**Organizational Structures**
Element	Involve planning and continuous assessment
Questions	How will we develop a mentoring plan?
	On what scale will we implement the plan?
	What will the desired goals and outcomes be?
	How will we ensure continuous assessment?
	How will we assure that evaluative data will be used for program improvement?
Element	Prepare mentors and mentees
Questions	What will the roles and responsibilities of the mentor and mentee be?
	How will mentors and mentees be prepared to assume these roles?
Element	Provide appropriate human and financial resources for program implementation
Questions	What human and financial resources will we needed to support the program?
	What percent of resources does this represent?
	Does this percent denote the proper level of commitment to the program?
	How will the financial and human resources being committed be made visible within the organization?
Dimension	**Support Systems**
Element	Assure program coordination
Questions	How will program coordination be built into the functions of the organization?
	Who will assume coordination responsibilities?
	How will coordinators assure confidentiality for participants while continuing to provide needed support?
	How will the coordination function avoid becoming evaluative rather than supportive in reality and in the perceptions of participants?
Element	Guide the pairing and functioning of mentoring relationships
Questions	What are the most important elements to consider in forming mentor/mentee relationships?
	What processes will be used to form mentee/mentor pairs that allow input from the participants, and meet the needs of individuals and the organization?

(continued)

TABLE 1
Continued

Element	Provide incentives and recognition for participation
Questions	What types of incentives for participation will be meaningful for mentors and mentees?
	What type of recognition will be valued by mentees/mentors and the organization?
	How can we assure that those who participate in the mentoring program feel valued and those who do not participate do not feel devalued?

them, and the questions that should be asked and answered in order to incorporate them into the program.

THE HUMAN DIMENSIONS OF MENTORING

My analysis of the human aspects of mentoring described in these chapters indicated that there are three primary dimensions that must be present for mentoring endeavors to be successful at the individual level. I have labeled these as the "R" dimensions. These dimensions are: Relational, Reflective, and Reciprocal. As with the organizational dimensions of mentoring, these dimensions may often be overlapping, but they are distinct enough to be considered individually.

Creating a Relationship

As described in this text, successful mentoring is relational. It includes some type of emotional bonding that connects the mentor and the mentee. At their best, such relationships appear to require three elements: commitment, caring, and a sense of collegiality.

Commitment

Among the most important elements in the mentoring relationship is the commitment that both mentor and mentee must have to the relationship and to one another. Most of the authors identified the importance of having time to meet and share and also indicated how difficult it is for people to find time to do so. Thus, mentoring relationships often require sacrifice. Therefore, unless both parties are committed to making it work, the relationship will not grow and develop into full fruition. Among others, Tauer and Campbell and Campbell, described the problems that ensue when a mentee does not give total commitment to the relationship. Avani

and Mertz and Pfleeger detailed what happens when mentors do not engage themselves in the process. Disappointment, bitterness, and sometimes even anger results when one party is more committed than the other. When neither party really gives themselves to the relationship, failure seems assured. Within this context those who are designing mentoring programs for organizations and those who simply created such relationships (Fritzberg, Reed, et al,) will meet disappointments. They will go through stages of development as their relationship grows (Martin, Sullivan-Brown, Tauer). Without a commitment to stay with the relationship through good times and bad, mentoring may fall by the wayside.

Caring

In addition to a mutual commitment to mentoring and being mentored, it appears that successful mentoring relationships include a sense of caring. The emotional side of mentoring should not be minimized and people must be prepared for this aspect of the experience. Harris writes about students' desires for an emotional connection and Campbell and Campbell share this same need on the part of the mentors. Throughout the manuscripts, this element of genuine caring such as the statement "I love you, Alex" (Martin) are evident. Enomoto and her coauthors refer to it as caregiving. Reed and her colleagues talk about "gift giving."

Within this element of caring is the ability to trust one another, the notion of respect, and the willingness to go beyond the surface to confront when necessary (Fritzberg), comfort when needed (Reed et al.) and openly share the good and the bad (Mullen). An inability or unwillingness to do so resulted in surface relationships as described by Tauer and Campbell and Campbell, and frustration and disappointment in other settings (Martin; Mertz & Pfleeger; Wilcox). It may be that certain people have a disposition toward mentoring (Sullivan-Brown; Martin; Mertz & Pfleeger) and that without that underlying concern for others, it will be very difficult, if not impossible for the mentor/mentee relationship to develop appropriately.

Collegiality

A third important element that seems essential in building successful mentoring relationships is collegiality. The word as used here is very broad in scope. It involves being comfortable working together. This is evident in many of the chapters. Mertz and Pfleeger refer to it "clicking." Reed and her colleagues and the Campbells' chapter bring a particular emphasis to the need for some type of compatibility to exist between those engaged in mentoring relationships. Harris found that college students wanted mentors who shared a common vision of the purposes of the relationship and who would want to be engaged in building a personal relationship.

Sullivan-Brown, among others, writes of the importance of mentors and mentees being able to openly communicate with one another. This is another vital characteristic of a collegial mentoring relationship. In all relevant chapters, those mentor/mentee teams that enjoyed one another as people and as professionals seemed to have greater success than those that did not. Although they did not always agree with one another on every issue, their relationships were comfortable and compatible.

Reflection as a Part of Development

It appears that mentoring relationships are most successful when both parties are willing to engage in reflecting upon the purposes, the mentoring relationship, and the progress being made. In some cases, such as Zellner and Erlandson and in the project described by Watts and his colleagues, reflective practices were built into the mentoring process. Mullen shared how she worked with her students to examine the value of what they were doing and how they were relating to one another. In other settings, reflection occurred naturally. No matter what the structure of the reflective process, it appears to be an essential element in successful mentoring practices. Sullivan-Brown suggests that those engaged in mentoring use Schön's (1983) work to help guide their practice. This requires that individuals consider what should happen, what is happening, and what actions they should take as a result.

Purposes

One of the most important topics for reflection is the purposes of the mentoring relationship. It appears imperative that both mentor and mentee have an agreement about why the mentoring is occurring and what their roles are in the process. A lack of such reflection caused many difficulties for those involved in mentoring relationships in these chapters.

An often overlooked area for reflection, which was examined quite intensely by many of our authors was using the mentoring relationship to stimulate the questioning of the status quo and personal and organizational transformation. This particular issue is one that requires a great deal of conversation, reflection, and examination when dealing with the purposes of the mentoring relationship (Enomoto, Gardiner, & Grogan; Fritzberg; Mullen; Reed, Phillips, Parish, and Shaw; Sullivan-Brown). Fritzberg made a strong point about avoiding having the mentee become a clone—a thread that ran through many of the chapters.

Partnership Functioning

As Mertz and Pfleeger remind us, the purposes of mentoring are not static so they should be reexamined throughout the relationship and

revised as needed. This leads to a second important topic for reflection: the functioning of the mentoring relationship itself. Fritzberg and Reed and her co-authors share the importance of being open to this type of reflection as you work and grow together. Personal and professional growth and change should be occurring as the mentoring progresses. That change will impact why mentoring is occurring and the content of the conversations and actions taking place. Enomoto and her colleagues stressed the importance of examining these relationships particularly in terms of power inequities and their influence upon the mentee.

Mentoring requires a safe environment in which individuals can take risks. It also requires openness, trust, and honesty. These are not static in any relationship. Therefore, it is important for mentors and mentees to take time to reflect upon their relationship and the extent to which it is flourishing, stagnating, or being hindered. The literature is replete with the evidence that those who reflect on their work are more successful than those who do not. Our authors have presented convincing evidence that reflection is also a vital ingredient in successful mentoring relationships.

Progress

In addition to reflecting on the purposes of the relationship or program and the extent to which the individuals are functioning effectively, those involved in mentoring partnerships should reflect upon the degree to which the purposes are being met. Thus, those in Tauer's chapter conducted classroom visits and checked on the extent to which mentees were being integrated into the school. Sullivan-Brown's mentors and mentees examined whether transformation was occurring, something Enomoto and her colleagues continually stressed. In most of the chapters there was strong evidence that successful partnerships keep their eye on the goal and the degree to which progress is being made.

Reciprocity within Relationships

The final vital dimension of a successful mentoring relationship is reciprocity. This concept connotes a relationship that is jointly shared and mutuality beneficial. There appear to be three elements within this dimension: common values, mutual respect, and joint benefits.

Reciprocity, as described here, encompasses the idea of mutuality. In the best mentoring relationship, reciprocity begins within the framework of the initial formation of the mentorship with both parties willingly entering into the process. It includes the idea of mutual respect for one another as colleagues, professionals, and people and the concept that the relationship should benefit both parties.

Common Values

The first important element of recripocity is a common set of values related to the importance of the mentoring relationship and a willingness to accept responsibility for it. This is closely related to commitment and to caring, but is slightly different because it involves both parties having similar values. Successful mentoring relationships seem to be the strongest when both parties believe in the concept of mentoring, are willing to share their thoughts, ideas, and needs, and believe and willingly accept responsibility for the success of the endeavor. They demonstrate this commonality by showing consideration for one another, thinking about one another's needs, and having a common desire to have the mentee prosper in the organization. When the new art teacher and her mentor held differing values about pedagogy, it caused great difficulty (Martin). When the mentor in the Mertz and Pfleeger chapter viewed the mentee as being too ambitious, he was unable to assist her. Yet, when the mentor in that same chapter viewed his mentee as being ambitious and wanting to succeed, he applauded and supported those efforts. Seeing one's profession and the ways in which one succeeds in a similar way seems to be an important issue in working together successfully.

Mutual Respect

A second essential element of reciprocity in mentoring relationships involves mutual respect. The graduate student mentees in Sullivan-Brown's chapter brought this concept to the forefront when they emphasized that many mentees were individuals who had already made contributions and mentors needed to consider this when they worked with them. While the mentor has knowledge and understandings the mentee is seeking to acquire, it appears to be very important that the mentee is valued as someone who also has knowledge and expertise and perhaps, in some cases, can actually teach the mentor, such as when mentors in Tauer's chapters began to learn from their mentees.

Mutual respect for one another's wisdom can be present even when the mentee is younger and less experienced than the mentee. Fritzberg shared his respect for the wisdom of his young mentee, who, as time went on, began to question him about his actions and motives. Reed and her coauthors expressed this same sense of respect for the undergraduate and graduate students that were all part of the mentoring relationship in the chapter they wrote together. Sullivan-Brown, and Enomoto and her colleagues emphasized that mentees or mentors may have much to contribute to one another if they are of different genders or come from differing cultural or ethnic backgrounds. Mutual respect appears to involve not only an awareness of the skills and abilities of another but includes an acceptance that in some sense denotes equality of personhood.

Mertz and Pfleeger gave us the deepest insights into what happens when mutual respect does not exist on either side. When mentees did not

respect their mentors or trust them, their relationships could not grow. When mentors did not respect the mentee, they began to question the entire program and the concept behind it.

Mutuality includes some level of respect for one another that plays out in many ways. A willingness to focus on one another's needs is one of them. We read about this in many of the chapters as mentors zeroed in on their mentees present and future needs (Mertz & Pfleeger, Martin, Mullen, Tauer). We were reminded that mentees showed their concern by being considerate of their mentors by such things as being on time, (Campbell & Campbell), taking advice (Martin; Tauer; Wilcox), asking questions and sometimes challenging ideas (Fritzberg; Reed et al.; Sullivan-Brown).

Joint Benefits.

In addition to mutual respect, reciprocity connotes that the relationship is in some way beneficial for both individuals. A number of authors in this text have noted that engaging in mentoring relationships resulted in personal and professional growth and development (Campbell; Enomoto; Harris; Martin, Mertz & Pfleeger; Reed; Tauer, Wilcox, Zellner & Erlandson). In some cases, the organization provided concrete benefits such as giving incentives to mentors who worked with mentees. In some situations, when the mentee gained expanded skills or moved up in the organization, the mentor gained stature by being recognized as a person who recognizes talent and has the skills to help others succeed (Mertz & Pfleeger, Zellner & Erlandson).

For some, a powerful outcome of their professional and personal development was an increase in confidence and a sense of empowerment and taking control of their own destiny (Martin; Sullivan-Brown). In some cases the changes in the mentee and even the mentor resulted in transformation of thinking and improved practice (Enomoto, Gardiner, & Grogan; Martin; Mullen; Zeller & Erlandson; Sullivan-Brown). The changes in thinking and practice that occurred sometimes also had a positive relationship to school improvement or student achievement (Campbell and Campbell; Fritzberg). In summary, our authors suggest that successful mentoring programs and relationships are beneficial for both the mentor and the mentee and that they can be powerful avenues for bringing about organizational changes and improvement and enhancement of the personal and professional growth of those involved.

SUMMARIZING THE HUMAN DIMENSIONS OF MENTORING

Mentoring is first and foremost a human endeavor. The three dimensions of the human aspect of successful mentoring relationships and the elements within them are presented in summary form in Table 2. It is once

TABLE 2
The "R" Dimensions and Elements of Successful Mentoring Relationships

Dimension	*Elements*
Relational	Commitment
	Caring
	Collegiality
Reflective	Purposes
	Partnership
	Progress
Reciprocal	Common Values
	Mutual Respect
	Joint Benefits

again important to stress that these dimensions and elements are overlapping and interrelated. They are presented as separate constructs in the hope that this will provide guidelines for practice and a way of assessing the extent to which mentoring relationships are functioning effectively to help foster their success.

DEFINING MENTORING

The literature often notes the confusion, disagreement, and difficulty in defining mentoring (Crow & Matthews, 1998). This complexity was demonstrated throughout this text as the experiences and attributes of mentors and mentees and the mentoring process were presented. Yet, as I examined mentoring as it was described by all of the authors, I have discovered common themes that have led me to suggest a definition of successful mentoring I believe encompasses its essence and its complexity as follows:

> Successful mentoring involves having two or more individuals willingly form a mutually respectful, trusting relationship focused on goals that meet the needs and foster the potential of the mentee, while considering the needs of the mentor, and the context in which they both must function.

This definition is not inclusive of all mentoring experiences, but rather provides an evaluative component in numerous ways. First, by using the word "successful" the definition gives those interested in mentoring a frame of reference within which to examine it. The definition also suggests that mentoring is a willing relationship with certain characteristics (respect and trust) with a definite focus that considers the needs of both the mentor and mentees and their context. Thus, if any of these elements are miss-

ing, then there are two options. First the mentoring might not be successful. Second, it may not really be mentoring. I propose that in situations where one person gives another advice or guidance without forming a relationship it is not mentoring—rather it is serving as an advisor or guide, perhaps in some respects as a friend. I realize this may seem radical by some and incorrect by others. I present it as a proposal for helping organizations and individuals make decisions about whether they want to invest time, resources, and effort to engage in mentoring activities. I also believe narrowing the definition of mentoring to include the above factors will help individuals to judge their commitment to such an arrangement and to determine its level of success. I believe this definition gives people and organizations a yardstick by which to consider, develop, and evaluate mentoring programs, processes, and relationships.

Unresolved Issues and New Horizons

In addition to some very significant information about the organizational and human dimensions of mentoring, our authors have uncovered some issues that bear further research, dialogue, and sharing. Although I have addressed some of them in previous sections, there are five questions that seem to permeate these chapters that I believe researchers and practitioners should seek to answer. They are:

1. *How can organizations gain and maintain institutional and human commitment to mentoring programs?* Based on the studies reported here organizational programs and individual mentoring relationships will not succeed without organizational and human commitments to them. Our authors have presented some valuable insights into what can be done to gain such commitments. However, since this aspect is foundational to any successful mentoring endeavor more research, dialogue, and sharing about what is being done and what can be done to create and maintain such commitments is essential.
2. *What is the most effective way of creating mentor/mentee pairs?* In dealing with issues of ethnicity, gender, and social status when considering creating mentoring teams, our authors indicated these factors were not as important as power, influence, compatibility, and commitment. Although it appears that it is important to pair individuals so that the relationship will flourish, the criteria used requires further investigation. The issues of context, purposes, personality, and disposition should all be investigated along with the factors already mentioned.
3. *What types of mentoring training is most effective and what needs to be included in it?* Although it was evident throughout these chapters

that mentors and mentees in organizational programs need training, the type, length, purposes, and ways to determine the effectiveness of this training bears further examination. Likewise, proposals for assisting individuals who create their own mentoring teams to evaluate their individual and joint needs in terms of improving their relationship should be developed and proposed.

4. *Are there common stages of development in the mentoring relationship, and if so are all of them essential to success?* Many of our authors discussed the stages of mentoring as have many other researchers in the field. Yet, there is still some question as to whether everyone goes through the same stages and whether it matters. It appears that during the beginning of the mentoring relationship some type of bonding stage is essential but more exploration of this topic would be helpful.
5. *What is the correct balance between guiding mentees to maintain the status quo and encouraging them to create change and transformation?* Of all the issues uncovered in this book perhaps the most provocative and important is the degree to which mentoring should mold or transform individuals and the organizations in which they operate. Many questions are contained within this topic, which include ethical and moral judgments, values, and mores. The discussion on this topic should be an essential ingredient in any organization or relationship and in the whole field of mentoring research and practice. Without such dialogue, the ethical arena of mentoring will be without a foundation upon which to stand.

As a group, my colleagues and I have shared our experiences, understandings, successes, and failures as we have engaged in our mentoring journeys. We hope that our voices and those we have shared with you will facilitate the development of successful mentoring programs and relationships. Further, we hope that the ideas we have presented and the questions we have poised will add to the knowledge base on mentoring, enlighten our readers, foster additional research, and create new learnings as together we seek to teach and to learn as mentors and mentees committed to the welfare of one another.

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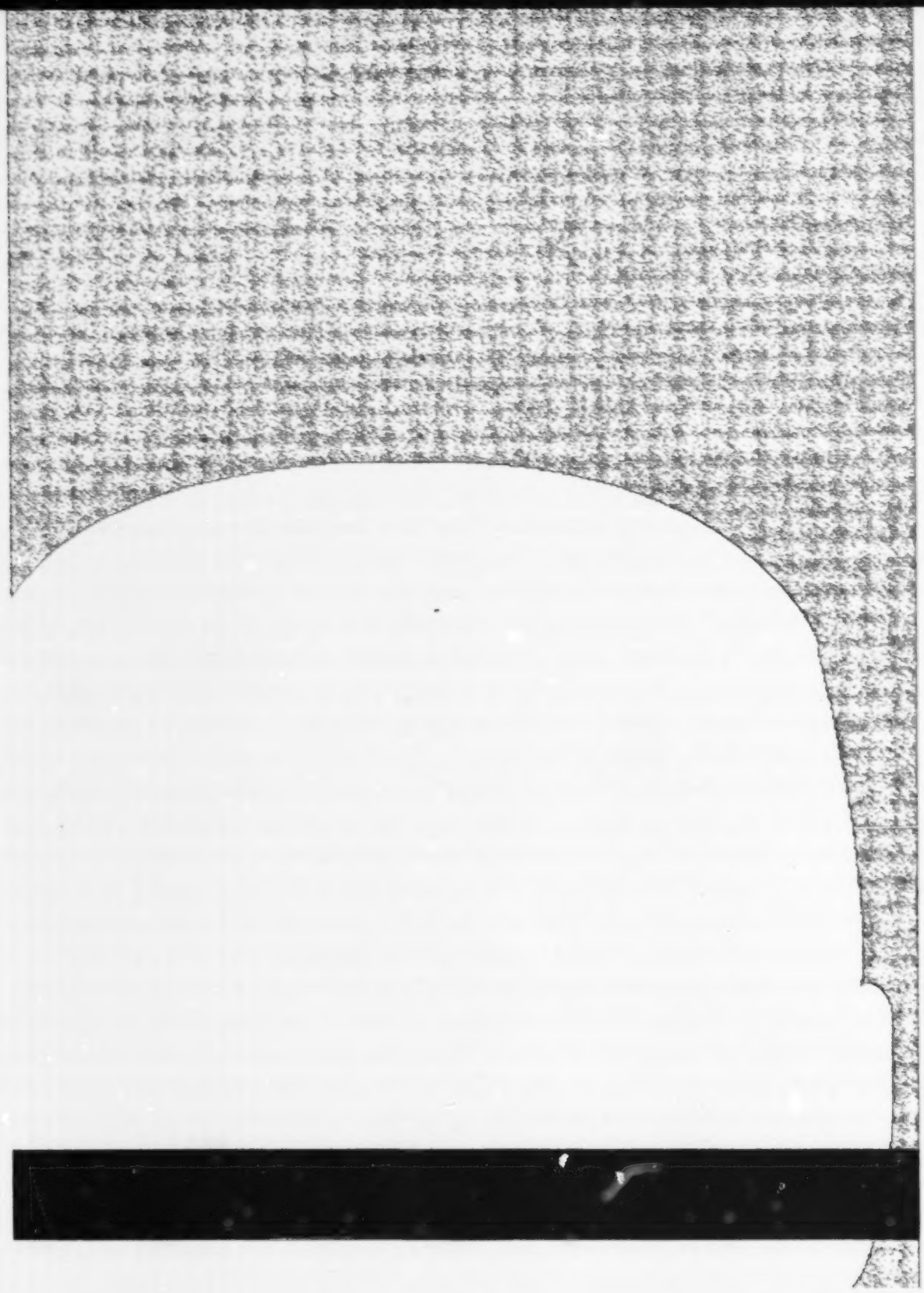

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